CANDID REPLY

TO THE

REVEREND DOCTOR HEMMENWAY'S

REMARKS

ON A

DISSERTATION

ON THE

SCRIFTURAL QUALIFICATIONS

FOR

ADMISSION AND ACCESS

TO THE

CHRISTIAN SACRAMENTS.

By NATHANAEL EMMONS, A. M. PASTOR OF THE CHURCH IN FRANKLIN.

THERE IS THAT SPEAKETH LIKE THE PIERCINGS OF A SWORD: BUT THE TONGUE OF THE WISE IS HEALTH. SOLOMON,

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CANDID REPLY, &c.

INTRODUCTION.



HERE is reason to believe, that religious disputes may be of great service to the cause of truth. Our Saviour, who declined all other controversies, frequently disputed upon religious subjects. The apostle Paul encountered

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the Athenian philosophers, and refuted their subtil objections against Christianity, by the force of fair reasoning. And it appears, from the history of the Church, that the pen of controversy has been successfully employed, from age to age, in desending and propagating the pure doctrines of the gospel. There is as much propriety in disputing for the sake of truth, as in going to war for the sake of liberty, going to law for the sake of justice, or taking physic for the sake of health. We may, indeed, justly regret those evils, which give rise to wars, lawfuits, medicines, and religious disputes; but we

have no reason to disapprove the practice of using these necessary means of public and private good. So long as maladies remain, we ought to make ufe of the proper remedies. So long as men differ in their religious fentiments, there will be occasion for religious disputes. Though it is devoutly to be wished, that all, who enjoy the gospel, might be heartily united in the belief of its great and important truths; yet, so long as any of these are either denied or perverted, it becomes those, who are set for the defence of the gospel, to contend earnestly for the faith, which was once delivered to the faints. The truth will bear examination, and, therefore, it will hime the brighter, even by ill-defigned and ill-conducted disputes. Every religious controverly naturally excites those, who are employed in it, to give the subject of debate a more full and thorough discussion, than the same persons would be capable of doing, without the mutual affiftance of mutual opposition. And, upon this principle, we have always reason to hope, that the cause of truth will eventually gain more than it lofes, by all the disputes on religious subjects.

It will, doubtless, be allowed, that the subject of the present controversy is of a practical nature, and deeply interesting to all, who believe the gospel, and acknowledge their obligations to walk in all the ordinances and commandments of the Lord blameless. It must be the desire, therefore, of every serious and candid person, that this subject may be thoroughly discussed, and set in a just, plain, prac-

tical light.

Had I foreseen, that this controversy would have been eventually narrowed to the simple question, whether Doctor Hemmenway, or his antagonist, were the greater man, I would have declined the contest, and practically given the Doctor his just pre-eminence. Waving, therefore, a dispute, which

feems not so proper for the disciples of Christ, I shall only resume the more important point, which was at first proposed; and endeavor to establish it,

upon plain and permanent principles.

It was the main object of the Differtation to prove, that none but real faints ought to partake of the Lord's supper. And this, we supposed, was the general opinion of those, who planted and composed our primitive churches. Accordingly, we faid, without the least hesitation, that "the first ministers and churches of New-England were unanimoully agreed, that none ought to come to the table of the Lord, but the subjects of saving grace." The truth of this observation, however, the Doctor is pleased to call in question. "It seems," says he, 66 to have been the general opinion, that none ought 6 to be admitted to full communion but true faints 66 in the judgment of christian charity; and that "none ought to come but those who find reason to so hope that they are fincere. And the Discourse on the Church expressly agrees with them in both "these points." To confirm this representation, he goes on to observe, " It is certain they held and " taught, and that unanimously so far as appears, that doubting christians may and ought to come 66 to communion. Now fince it is uncertain whethce cr those who doubt their own fincerity are true 6 faints, if these may and ought to come to com-"munion, it can never be maintained that true " faints only ought to come. If those have an ac-"knowledged right to come, who do not certainly " appear to be faints, it can never be proved, that "true faints only have a warrant. Why should " we then think that wife and good men were unanimously so inconfistent? Is it not injurious to presume " fuch a thing, and that without sufficient evidence?"

There is no conclusive reasoning about the truth of facts. Any fact is better established by two or A 2

three good testimonies, than by a thousand arguments. By quoting a few good authorities, the Doctor might have spared his pains in reasoning on a point, which required a different fort of proof. But, perhaps he found it much easier to reason, than to quote, upon this subject. He says, the first ministers and churches in New-England "held that doubting christians ought to come to communion;" and, from this, he argues, that they must have been of opinion, if they were confishent men, that all ought to come, who find reason to hope they are fincere, whether their hope be founded in truth, or deception. But, this is very inconclusive reasoning; because those consistent men, might have supposed, that doubting christians, who have grace, ought to come to communion; and yet have supposed, that doubting christians, who are destitute of grace, ought not to come. The Doctor's premises do not contain his conclusion. But, instead of opposing reasoning to reasoning, where it can be of no fervice; I shall directly proceed to adduce such public and authentic testimonies, as are absolutely decifive in this cafe.

Four noted Ministers say, in their presace to Mr. Edwards's Humble Inquiry, that "his dostrine, concerning the qualifications for full communion in the visible church, was brought over hither by the pious and judicious Fathers of this country, from the Puritans in England, and held by them and their fuccessors in our churches above three-fore years, without dissension." And this opinion one of those four Ministers, namely, Mr. Foxcrost, abundantly confirms, in his Appendix to the same Piece, by numerous quotations, from the writings of some of the most eminent differents in Britain. He says, "Now to pass over to England, neither do I find reason to think the differents there in general are for Mr. Stoddard's latitude." Again

The fays, "As to particular divines, I find mulitudes of them among the diffenters, in later as well as informer times, distinguishing between natural and instituted duties, between initial and constrming means, between special ordinances and common, and declaring the Lord's supper a disciple privilege, peculiar to such as have disciple properties, and admonishing as well the close hypocrite, (or doubting christian) as the more gross, of the size and danger of coming to it in his unregenerate

" state, impenitent, and unbelieving."

The compilers of the Platform fay, Chap. xii. Sect. 2, " The things requisite to be found in all "church members, are repentance from fin, and " faith in Jesus Christ; and, therefore, these are so things whereof men are to be examined at their "admission into the church, and which they must " profess and hold forth in such fort, as may fatisfy " rational charity that the things are there indeed." In the next Section they further observe, " The " weakest measure of faith is to be accepted in 66 those that desire to be admitted into the church, 66 because weak christians, if sincere, have the sub-" STANCE of that faith, repentance, and holiness, which is required in church members; and fuch " have the most need of the ordinances for their " confirmation and growth in grace. The Lord " Jesus Christ would not quench the smoking flax, " nor break the bruifed reed, but gather the ten-" der lambs in his arms, and carry them gently in "his bosom. Such charity and tenderness is to be " used, as the weakest christians, if sincere, may " not be excluded nor difcouraged."

Here the venerable Synod, who compiled the Platform, fay, by fincere christians, they mean those, who have the substance, that is, the REALITY of repentance, faith, and holiness; and by the weakest fincere christians, they mean those, who have the

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lowest degree of saving grace. Having given this just description of sincere christians, they expressly declare, that such are to be admitted to special ordinances, because they have those gracious qualifications, which are required in church members.

To this testimony of the Synod at Cambridge, 1648, I may add the testimony of the Synod at Boston, 1680. In their Confession of Faith, they say, "All uncodly persons, as they are unfir to enjoy communion with Christ, so they are unsworthy of the Lord's table, and cannot without great sin against him, whilst they remain such, partake of those holy mysteries, or be admitted thereto; yea, whosover shall receive unworthily are guilty of the body and blood of the Lord, cating and drinking judgment to themselves."

If this learned body of divines have here used proper terms to express their own meaning, they certainly did believe and maintain, that none ought to partake of the Lord's supper, but the subjects of saving grace. And should all the churches in America now say, that this was not their opinion, it would not have the weight of a straw, to weaken their own public, united, solemn testimony to the contrary. We are just as certain, therefore, that the first ministers and churches of New England did maintain, that none ought to come to the table of the Lord, but the subjects of saving grace, as we are, that they did maintain any one article in either their Platform or Consession of Faith. The thing is certain, beyond a possibility of resutation.

Having fettled this point, we shall proceed, with the more pleasure and confidence, in supporting a doctrine, which the Synod at Cambridge, and the Synod at Boston, unanimously taught, and from which some of their descendants have unhappily departed. But, how many of our churches have departed from the opinion of their ancestors, and gone over to Mr. Stoddard's theory and practice, it may be difficult, perhaps, fully to ascertain. But, as this is a matter of no great importance, in the present dispute, we are willing to allow the Doctor's conjecture, or to leave the point in a state of un-

certainty.

Since the Doctor acquits himself of reviving an old controvers, and retorts the charge upon the author of the Differtation, he cheerfully concurs in appealing to the impartial public, who will probably regard facts, more than declarations, on either fide, and eventually fix the blame upon the proper person.



CHAPTER I.

The Doctor's Remarks on "the Definition of the Church," considered.

COMPLAINED of the Doctor's definition of the church, because he included infants in it; and he has complained of my definition of the church, because I excluded infants from it. But he had no ground to say, that I excluded infants from the church in my definition, as much as he included them in his, merely because I endeavoured to prove, afterwards, that they do not belong to the church. I said not a single word about infants in my definition, because I meant to treat the subject in debate sairly; and not to take, as he appeared to do, an important and disputed point for granted.

But the Doctor charges me, not only with inconfistency, but with misrepresentation. It is true, I faid his definition "took fome adult perfons, who had made no profession of religion, not only into the visible church, but into the covenant of grace." This he calls a mifrepresentation. But let us hear his definition speak for itself. The fifth article says, "Many who are members of a church in a larger 65 fense, are not members of the communicating "church; nor are to be admitted to the Lord's a table without further qualifications." These adult persons, who have made no profession, and who, for that reason, have not come to the sacrament, the Doctor fays, are members of the visible church, in a larger fenfer. But all, who belong to the visible church, he fays, in a few lines below, " are " subjects of the kingdom of heaven, interested in

the new covenant, and entitled to peculiar privileges." The Doctor is the proper judge of his own meaning; but we appeal to the discerning and impartial reader to determine, whether we have misrepresented the plain and obvious import of his own expressions.



CHAPTER H.

The Doctor's Remarks on "the Covenant of Grace," considered.

INCE the subject of this chapter appears to be closely connected with our principal design, we shall consider the Doctor's remarks upon it with particular care and attention.

SECT. I.

His Remarks on "the general Nature of Covenanting," considered.

I SAID, in the Differtation, that " a covenant is a mutual contract, flipulation, or agreement, between two or more parties, upon certain conditions." This definition the Doctor objects against, merely because it makes mutual consent of parties, absolutely essential to a proper covenant. 66 What-" ever any may suppose," fays he, " that the word covenant may fignify in its strictest and most proper fenfe, as used among mankind, yet in scripture " it is certainly used in a larger sense. A divine " conflitution containing a grant of special favors " to the children of men, and enjoining duties as the condition of the continuance of those fa-" vors, or the grant of further ones, is, in the 46 language of scripture, a covenant, though a per-" fonal and formal confent of the subject party were " not given to it. This being the case, it is in vain "to fay that fuch a divine conflitution is termed covenant in scripture, only in a figurative scripture, because some circumstances and formalities re-

" quired in human compacts are wanting,"

We granted, in the Differtation, that the scripture sometimes calls an absolute, unconditional promise a covenant in a figurative sense; but the Doctor here insists, that there may be a strict and proper covenant, without mutual agreement, or consent of parties. This, then, is the turning point between us, whether mutual consent of parties be essential to a strict and proper covenant. And to

determine this point, I would observe,

1. The true meaning of the word covenant necessarily involves the idea of mutual consent of parties. There is no word in our language, which has a more uniform and definite meaning, than the word covenant. This term is never properly used to fignify a bare declaration, or a bare promise; but always denotes, as Johnson says, a contract, stipulation, or agreement, on certain conditions, or a writing containing the terms of fuch a mutual agreement. This is the strict and proper sense of the word covenant in English, as the Doctor himself implicitly allows. And it has the same signification in other languages. All the Latin and Greek terms, which are used to represent a federal transaction, properly denote a mutual contract or agreement, between two or more parties. But, it is of more importance to observe, that the Hebrew word, which is rendered covenant in the Old Testament, properly fignifies that obligation, which perfons lay themselves under to each other, by mutual oath, promise, or agreement. This sense of the word is confirmed by Buxtorf, and by Leigh, who quotes Aben Ezra as faying it fignifies, " the mutual confent of two respecting any particular matter." But Doctor Cudworth, in a Discourse concerning the true

notion of the Lord's Supper, has made it appear, that the word Berith, which our translators render covenant, properly denotes the union of those, who have laid themselves under solemn engagements to each other, because it is derived from a verb, which signifies to eat and drink together, agreeably to the custom of the Hebrews and other nations, in ratifying sederal transactions. "Thus," says he, "when Isaac made a covenant with Abimelech the king of Gerar, the text saith, He made him and those who were with him a feast, and did eat and drink, and rose up betimes in the morning, and sware one to another. Gen. xxvi.

"One to another. Gen. xxvi.
"When Laban made a covenant with Jacob,
Gen. xxxi. 44, Now therefore come, (faith Laban)
let us make a covenant, I and thou, and let it be for
a witnefs between me and thee: Then it follows
in the text, They took stones, and made an heap, and
did eat there upon the heap; and Laban called it
JECARSANADUTHA, in his Chaldee tongue, but
Jacob (in the Hebrew language) GALEED, i. e.
a heap of witnefs; implying, that those stones,
upon which they had caten and drank together,
should be a witness against either of them, that
should first violate that covenant.

"Joshua ix. ver. 14, when the Gibeonites came to the Israelites, and defired them to make a league with them, it is said, The men of Israel took of their victuals, and asked not counsel of the mouth of the Lord; that is, they made a covernant with them, as Kinski learnedly expounds it.

"Wherefore I think from all these instances I may conclude, that this is the true etymon of that Hebrew word Berith, which signifies a covenant, or any sederal communion between parties, from Barah, consedere, because it was the constant custom of the Hebrews and other Oriental nations,

to establish covenants by eating and drinking to-

" gether."

Thus it appears, contrary to the Doctor's affertion, that mutual confent of parties is effential to a first and proper covenant, according to its most first and proper meaning, as it is used both in scripture and among mankind. And this leads me

to observe,

2. This scripture sense of the word covenant is abundantly confirmed, by a number of plain scriptural covenants. God required Noah to make an ark of certain dimensions; to provide food for every species of living creatures; to admit the male and semale of each species into the ark; and, last of all, to go in himself, with his whole samily. Upon these conditions, God promised to preserve him, his samily, and every species of animals. Noah complied with the conditions proposed, and God bestowed the blessings promised. This transaction, which is related in the vith of Genesis, was a strict and proper covenant, and sounded in mutual con-

fent of parties.

The covenant, which God made with Abraham, is acknowledged, by all, to be a strict and proper covenant, in the scripture sense of the word. But this covenant was a mutual contract or agreement between God and his friend, upon certain conditions. These were specified in the Differtation. But, to put the conditionality of the Abrahamic covenant out of doubt, it may be proper to cite one passage of scripture, which appears to be decisive in this case. God promises Isaac, in Gen. xxvith, that he shall inherit the land of Canaan, because his father Abraham had kept covenant with him. And the Lord appeared unto Isaac, and faid, Go not down into Egypt: Dwell in the land which I shall tell the of: Sojourn in this land, and I will be with thee, and blefs thee: For unto thee, and unto thy feed I will give all these countries, and I will perform the oath which I sware unto Abraham thy father: And I will make thy feed to multiply as the stars of heaven, and will give unto thy seed all these countries: And in thy feed shall all the nations of the earth be blessed. Because that Abraham obeyed my voice, and kept my charge, my commandments, my statutes, and my laws."

In the ixth of Joshua, we read of a sederal transaction between the Israelites and the Gibeonites: According to the representation there given, Joshua and the men of Israel engaged to spare the lives of the Gibeonites, upon condition of their becoming servants to the people of God. This the Gibeonites promised, and, agreeably to this promise, Joshua spared their lives. It is said, indeed, that Joshua made a league with them; but this is a translation of the same word, which is usually translated covenant, in the Old Testament. So that Joshua's mutual contract and agreement with the Gibeonites was a strict and proper covenant.

Jonathan and David covenanted together, by mutually confenting to certain conditions. Thefe we find specified in 1 Sam. xx. 10-17. Jonathan said unto David, Come, and let us go into the field. And they went out both of them into the field. And Jonathan faid unto David, O Lord God of Ifrael, when I have founded my father about tomorrow any time, or the third day, and, behold, if there be good toward David, and I then fend not unto thee, and shew thee; the Lord do so and much more to Jonathan. But if it please my father to do thee evil, then I will shew it thee, and fend thee away, that thou mayest go in peace: And the Lord be with thee, as he hath been with my father. And thou shalt not only while yet I live fhew me the kindness of the Lord, that I die not: But also thou shalt not cut off thy kindness from

my house forever; no not when the Lord hath cut off the enemies of David every one from the face of the earth. So Jonathan made a covenant with the house of David, saying, Let the Lord even require it at the hand of David's enemies. And Jonathan caused David to swear again, because he loved him: For he loved him as he loved his own foul." This mutual consent of these two saithful friends, under the solemnity of an oath, completed and consirmed their covenant.

Ahab made a proper covenant with Ben-hadad king of Syria; and the terms, to which they mutually confented, were thefe. "Ben-hadad faid to Ahab, The cities which my father took from thy father, I will restore: And thou shalt make streets for thee in Damascus, as my father made in Samaria. Then said Ahab, I will send thee away with this covenant. So he made a covenant with him, and sent him away." This covenant was a mutual contract or stipulation between the two kings, upon certain conditions.

There is another federal transaction, which is related in the New Testament, and which clearly shows, that mutual consent of parties belongs to the effence of a strict and proper covenant. Matthew gives the account in these words: "Then one of the twelve, called Judas Iscariot, went unto the chief priests, and said unto them, What will ye give me, and I will deliver him unto you? And they covenanted with him for thirty pieces of silver."

It only remains to mention the covenant of grace, which is a gracious proposal of God to his sinful creatures, upon a most gracious condition. This is the uniform representation of scripture. Our Lord says, "God so loved the world, that he gave his only begotten Son, that whosoever believeth in him should not perish, but have everlasting life." And he ordered all his apostles and ministers to

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propose faith as the the condition of the covenant of grace to every individual of mankind. " And he faid unto them, Go ye into all the world, and preach the gospel to every creature. He that believeth and is baptized shall be faved: But he that believeth not shall be damned." No man can enter into the covenant of grace, and secure the blessings of it, without believing in Christ. Faith is the condition of the new and everlasting covenant. This is allowed by divines in general, and repeatedly afferted by our author in particular. In his Difcourse, he fays, page 21, 22, "While we disclaim " all pretence to merit in any qualifications wrought " in us, or done by us, and acknowledge ourselves " entirely beholden to the free grace of God, and 44 the righteoufness of Christ for our falvation, with " all the means and qualifications whereby we are 6 made meet for the inheritance of the faints, I fee " not why our afferting the conditionality of the "gospel covenant should be suspected of detracting "from the honor due to the grace of God, and the " merit of the power and love of our divine Re-"deemer. And however vague the meaning of "the word condition may feem, in itself, vet the " fense is fixed and determined by the explanation " given of it, namely, That act or qualification of " the party with whom the covenant is made, by "which, according to the tenor of the covenant, 66 the party has a title to, or is interested in, the " benefits therein granted or promised. " fenle we conceive the new covenant may be "termed conditional." Agreeably to this, he obferves, page 23, " The first act or qualification "which has a promise of the saving grace and bleff-66 ings of the covenant is, I think, generally held to " be a true and living faith, whereby we are united " to Christ in whom all the promises are yea and amen." In plainer terms still, he fays, page 19,

⁵⁶ Upon the whole, merely a conditional grant of ⁶⁶ covenant bleffings gives no one an interest in the ⁶⁶ covenant, as the phrase is always understood. ⁶⁶ Nor does a proposal or offer of this conditional ⁶⁶ grant, enforced with a divine command, requiring ⁶⁶ men to consent to and comply with it, give men ⁶⁶ an interest in the covenant."

Thus it appears from scripture, and from our author himself, that mutual confent of parties is absolutely essential to the covenant of grace, and to every other strict and proper covenant. And this warrants us to say, that the word covenant is used in the same sense in scripture and among men; that human and divine covenants are of the same nature; and that every strict and proper covenant is a mutual contract, stipulation, or agreement, between two or more parties, upon certain conditions." The Doctor's objection, therefore, against this definition, is wholly without foundation.

But, though his objection appears to be groundless; yet, it may be proper and respectful, to consider some of his most ingenious observations, in fa-

vor of it.

1. He observes, that mutual consent of parties is only a form or circumstance of covenanting; and, therefore, there may be a strict and proper covenant, where this form or circumstance is wanting. It is certainly true, that a mere form or circumstance is not effential to a covenant. And if mutual consent of parties be only a form or circumstance of covenanting, the Doctor's conclusion will stand. But let us examine this matter. The form of any thing may be varied, but the effence of it is immutable. Whatever, therefore, is variable in a covenant belongs to its form; and whatever is immutable belongs to its effence. A covenant may be made at any time, whether morning, noon or night. It may be made at any place, whether pub-B 2

lic or private, common or facred. It may be made by two persons, or by twenty, or by twenty thoufand. It may be made by words, or figns, or writ-These are modes and circumstances of a covenant, which may be varied, without altering the nature or obligation of it. But, mutual confent of parties must be given, at some time, in some place, and in some form or other. If this be wanting in any transaction among persons, their transaction cannot have the nature and obligation of a covenant. For, the only thing which distinguishes covenant obligations from all other obligations is mutual confent of parties. It is this, therefore, which constitutes the nature and essence of every covenant, whether human or divine. Mutual confent of parties constituted the nature and effence of all those covenants, which have been mentioned. God could not have entered into covenant with Noah, without his confenting to the terms proposed. The Gibeonites could not have entered into covenant with Joshua, without his consenting to the terms proposed. Jonathan could not have entered into covenant with David, without his consenting to the terms proposed. Ben-hadad could not have entered into covenant with Ahab, without his confenting to the terms proposed. Nor could the chief priests have entered into covenant with Judas, without his confenting to the terms proposed. The circumstances and formalities of these covenants were various; but their effence was one and the fame. And this was mutual consent of parties. The circumstances and formalities of a covenant, between God and man, may be different from the circumstances and formalities of a covenant, between man and man; but the effence of both human and divine covenants must necessarily be the fame. And, fince mutual confent of parties does not belong to the circumstances or formalities of

any covenant, it must belong to the effence of it. No covenant, therefore, ever has been, or ever can be made, without mutual consent of parties being given, in some form or other. The form of giving mutual consent is circumstantial, but the giving of it is effential to any covenant, which creates mutual obli-

gation between the parties.

2. The Doctor observes, that mutual consent of parties is not effential to a covenant, because it may comprehend more than the parties, who give their mutual confent. "Suppose," fays he, "mu-"tual confent of the parties, is held necessary in a "proper formal covenant, yet the actual perfonal confent of all who are comprehended and interest-"ed therein is not necessary. This appears from 66 the common sense and usages of mankind, among " whom covenants are often made by authorized 66 representatives, in which many are interested, who 46 have not actually and perfonally confented. And it is abundantly evident from scripture, that in " the covenants which God has condescended to so make with the children of men, many were in-" cluded without their actual and personal consent; " others being authorized to covenant in their be-44 half."

To fay that a covenant comprehends all, who give their explicit or implicit confent to the terms of it, is plain and intelligible language. But, to fay that a covenant comprehends more than those, who give either their explicit or implicit confent, is ambiguous and obscure. If the Doctor means to say, that a covenant, made by mutual confent of parties, may affect the interests of others, who did not give their mutual confent, this is unquestionably true. A parent may make a covenant, without the consent of his children, which may greatly increase or diminish their interest. Representatives may make a contract, treaty, or covenant, without the consent of their

their constituents, which may be greatly favorable or unfavorable to their interest. And the father of a nation may make a covenant, without their confent, which may be greatly beneficial or detrimental to them, from generation to generation. The influence of a covenant may extend to more than the parties concerned, whether they have this in view or not. But it would be very improper to say, that the parties comprehended all in their covenant, who were either benefited or injured by it;

or even any besides themselves.

Again: If the Doctor means to fay, that a covenant may bind more than the parties concerned; this may be, also, admitted. Parents may bind their children, and representatives may bind their constituents, by covenants, made without their confent. But, the obligation, in all fuch cases, is only the obligation of authority. Parents have authority to bind their children to whom they please, during their minority. And representatives have a right to make compacts, which shall legally bind their constituents. But, the obligation laid upon children and subjects, without their consent, by those who have authority over them, is a very different kind of obligation from that, which either children or subjects lay upon themselves, by their own confent. Though it be true, therefore, that a covenant may interest, or bind, more than the parties concerned; and, though this were all that the Doctor meant, by faying, that a covenant may comprehend more than the parties, who give their consent; yet his phraseology is by no means proper and perspicuous.

But, he evidently means more than this, by being comprehended in a covenant. He means, that the parties, who give their mutual confent, may lay the fame obligation upon others, which they lay upon themselves. And this he endeavors to illustrate

and confirm, by the common fense and usages of mankind, and by several sederal transactions, which

are recorded in scripture.

He fays, " parents may covenant for themselves and children;" that is, lay the same obligation upon their children, which they lay upon themselves. But, this is contrary to common fense. Suppose a parent covenants with a master, upon certain conditions, that his child shall serve him seven years. And suppose the child is not consulted, but the covenant is made without his knowledge and confent. The question now is, Between whom does this covenant subsist? Common sense says, Between the parent and the master. They are mutually bound, because they mutually promised to perform the conditions proposed. The child is wholly pasfive in this transaction; and, therefore, the bond of the covenant, which lies upon the parent and mafter, does not lie upon him, nor bind him in the least degree. It is true, he is bound to obey his master, by the rightful authority of his father. But, his obligation is totally different from his father's obligation, His obligation arises from authority, but his father's obligation arises from promise. The father, in this case, lays himself under covenant obligation to the master; but it is out of his power, to lay his child under the same obligation. Hence it appears, that parents cannot covenant for their children, in the fame sense, in which they can covenant for themselves, that is, lay them under covenant obligation. They can only covenant about them, and, by covenanting about them, lay them under obligation of authority or interest.

The Doctor further observes, that "agents covenant on the behalf of those they act for." But, it is easy to reply, that they never lay their constituents under obligation, without their consent. When agents are appointed to covenant for their constitu-

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ents, their constituents always define their powers. Sometimes they authorize them only to make proposals, and ratify them with the condition, that they meet the approbation of their constituents. And, in this case, they do not lay their constituents under covenant obligation, without their explicit perfonal consent. Sometimes, agents are authorized to make and ratify covenants, without any revision. And, in this case, the constituents give their implicit consent. The case of agents, therefore, serves to illustrate the very truth, which the Dostor means to deny, namely, that mutual consent of parties is absolutely essential to a covenant, so that none can be laid under the obligation of it, without either an explicit or implicit consent.

The Docter goes on to fay, "In the primitive constitution under which our first parents were placed, it appears not that their actual consent was asked for, as necessary to their coming under it. But it is certain that their posterity were interested

" in it without their personal consent."

This instance is nothing to the Doctor's purpose, according to his own statement. He says our first parents were placed under a constitution. But it is well known, there is a wide difference between a constitution and covenant. A constitution means the same as a code or system of laws, or rules of conduct. God might, therefore, have placed our first parents and their posterity under a constitution, without their confent, as well as have given them any particular precept or prohibition. And we are willing to grant, that God did place our first parents under a constitution, without their consent; and that the constitution, under which they were placed, was defigned to interest or affect their posterity, both in time and eternity. This may be fafely allowed, without allowing, that God laid either our first parents, or their posterity, under covenant obligations, without their confent.

But, granting, however, what many suppose, that God did make a strict and proper covenant with our first parents; yet, there is no reason to conclude, that it comprehended their posterity, to whom it was never proposed, and by whom it was never broken. It is true, we find, by the event, that by one man's disobedience, all men are become finners; but there is nothing in scripture, which leads us to suppose, that Adam knew, before his apostacy, that the fate of his posterity was suspended upon any part of his conduct. It feems, as the Doctor fuggelts, that God, as a Sovereign, constituted a connexion, between Adam's conduct and the state of his posterity, without either his or their knowledge and confent. In this way, we may account for Adam's posterity becoming sinners, though not for their becoming covenant breakers. But the Doctor must prove, that all mankind have eaten of the forbidden fruit, and so have broken the first covenant, before he can fairly argue from it, that they were all comprehended in it.

The last instance, which he adduces to show, that a covenant may comprehend more than the parties, who give their consent, is the covenant of Abraham. This covenant was made by mutual consent. God promised to bestow certain blessings upon Abraham, and his posterity, upon certain conditions, to which Abraham consented. But, though his consent to the covenant, brought himself into covenant relation, and under covenant obligation; yet, it did not bring his posterity into covenant relation, nor under covenant obligation. No child of Abraham could, without his own personal consent to the covenant, claim any covenant relation to, or covenant blessing from God, on his satter's eccount. This is agreeable to the opinion of an ingenious writ-

er, who has paid great attention to the Abrahamic covenant. He observes, "that whatever divine covenant there is respecting the seed and offspring of the righteous, it subsists wholly betwixt God, and the parent: All the promises of it as far as they relate to the offspring being made to the parent. Thus it was, as to Abraham, himself; and thus it is as to all believers. No promises whatever are made to the child; but whatever promises there are, are to the parent. All covenants contain certain conditions: And, no one hath a right, or claim, to the blessings promised in the covenant, otherwise than upon a compliance with the conditions of it."

We can easily conceive that Abraham, by entering into covenant with God, and performing the conditions of it, secured bleffings, not only to himself, but to his posterity. But, it is not so easy to conceive, that, by laying himself under the obligation of a promise to perform certain conditions, he laid his posterity under the same obligation to perform the same conditions, without their promise. And if his promise was not their promise, it is absolutely certain, that his promise did not bring them under the bond of the covenant, or lay them under the same obligation to perform the conditions of it, which it laid him under. As the covenant, therefore, bound him, and not his posterity; so it comprehended him, and not his posterity.

It now appears, we trust, that there is no force in any thing, which the Dostor has said, to resute our definition of covenanting. And, if our definition will stand, it will probably answer the purposes, for which it was framed, and serve to decide

the principal point in our favor.

SECT. II.

The Doctor's Remarks on "the precise statement of the Covenant of Grace," considered.

WE defined the covenant of grace to be, "the promife of God to fave finners, through faith in the Mediator." This definition the Doctor allows to be agreeable to those passages of scripture, which were cited to support it. And, if those passages have once supported it, they always will support it. Hence there appears to be no occasion for remarking upon the Doctor's definition of the evangelical covenant or constitution, in its sull amplitude and extent, which has no reason nor scripture to support it. It is nothing but a blending of the covenant of grace with the covenant of redemption; which he has acknowledged, in his Remarks, ought not to be done.

SECT. III.

The Doctor's Remarks on "the distinction between the Covenant of Grace and Covenant of Redemption," considered.

THE distinction, as stated in the Dissertation, between these two covenants, the Doctor allows to be just; however inconsistent his concession may be with his definition of the covenant of grace, both in his Discourse and in his Remarks.

SECT. IV.

The Doctor's Remarks on "the distinction between the Covenant of Grace and the Covenant of Abraham," considered.

THE Differtation defined the covenant of grace to be, "the promife of God to fave finners, through faith in the Mediator;" from which it was inferred, that the covenant of Abraham must be distinct from the covenant of grace. This inference the Doctor cannot deny, without denying the definition, from which it was drawn. And fince he has faid nothing to invalidate the definition, the conclusion remains in its full force. But, not to lay too much weight upon a bare definition, I will endeavor to make it appear, that the covenant of Abraham was distinct from the covenant of grace.

It is allowed, on all fides, that God made a particular covenant with Abraham, in which he required him to circumcife himfelf and family; in which he promifed to give him a numerous feed; in which he promifed to give his numerous feed the land of Canaan; in which he promifed to raife up a fuccession of pious men among his posterity; and in which he promised, that the Messiah should spring from one of his descendants. That this covenant was distinct from the covenant of grace will appear, if we consider,

1. Their different dates. The covenant of grace was proposed immediately after the fall; and all true believers, from Adam to Abraham, embraced it, and became entitled to its saving benefits. But, the covenant of circumcision was never proposed to any person before Abraham, who lived above two thousand years after the covenant of grace was made. This all must allow to be true; but, if this

be true, how is it possible to conceive, that the covenant of Abraham and the covenant of grace are the same? It may be said, perhaps, that the covenant of Abraham was only a renewal of the covenant of grace. But, to this it may be sufficient to reply, that there is no more propriety in saying, that the covenant of grace was renewed to Abraham, than in saying, it was renewed to Seth, or

Enoch, or any other believer after Abel.

2. The covenant of Abraham was built upon the covenant of grace. This God intimated, when he proposed to enter into covenant with Abraham. And when Abram was ninety years old and nine, the Lord appeared to Abram, and faid unto him, I am the Almighty God; walk before me, and be thou perfect. And I will make my covenant between me and thee." God here proposes to enter into covenant with Abraham, as being a pious, faithful man, or true believer. And Paul fays he was fuch, when he entered into the covenant of circumcifion. 66 Abraham received the fign of circumcifion, a feal of the righteoufness of the faith which he had being yet uncircumcifed." But, if Abraham was a true believer, and interested in the covenant of grace, before he entered into the covenant of circumcifion; and if this was a preliminary of his admission into that covenant, then, it will follow, that the covenant of circumcifion was built upon the covenant of grace, and, of consequence, was really distinct from it.

3. If the covenant of Abraham was not distinst from the covenant of grace, then there is no more propriety in calling the covenant of circumcifion the covenant of Abraham, than in calling it the covenant of Adam, or of Enoch, or of Noah, or of any other ancient patriarch. But God often mentions his memorable covenant with Abraham, as the primary ground of his distinguishing favore

to the Israelites, in Egypt, in the wilderness, and during their long residence in the land of Canaan. The covenant of Abraham, therefore, was distinct from the simple covenant of grace, or any other covenant, which God had ever made with true be-

lievers before his day. Besides,

4. It appears, that the covenant of circumcifion has answered its purpose and ceased. God has made the feed of Abraham numerous; given them the land of Canaan; preferved the church among them for ages; and raifed up the Meffiah from one of their tribes. And in consequence of this, he has cast them off, broken down the walls of separation between them and other nations, and abolished the covenant of circumcision. Believers now have no more concern with this covenant, than Enoch or Noah had before it was made. It neither requires any thing from believers now, nor promises any thing to them. They are in the simple covenant of grace, which has always been in force fince the fall of man to this day. And this proves that the covenant of circumcifion, which has been added to and taken from the covenant of grace, was always distinct from it.

But, here it may be faid, that God made as great and precious promifes to Abraham, as he now makes to believers under the gospel; which seems to suppose, that his covenant with Abraham was no

other than the covenant of grace.

To this it may be replied, that Abraham was in the covenant of grace as well as in the covenant of circumcifion; and, therefore, flood entitled to the bleffings of both covenants. In the covenant of grace, God promifed the fame bleffings to Abraham, which he had before promifed to all true believers, from Adam to his day; and which he now promifes to all, who embrace the gospel. But, in the covenant of circumcision, he promised bleffings,

which

which he had never promifed to any believers before his time; and which he does not promife to
those who now believe in Christ. Abraham had
the same promises made to him in the covenant of
grace, which believers now have made to them in
the same covenant. And he had promises made
to him in the covenant of circumcision, which are
not made to believers at this day. So that the
promises made to Abraham, and those made to believers under the gospel, are widely different; and
this difference proves the distinction between the
covenant of grace, and the covenant of circumcision,
instead of forming the least objection against it.

It may be further faid, that the covenant of Abraham is called, in the New Testament, the covenant of promise; and believers, under the gospel, are said to be interested in the covenant of promise; which seems to imply, that the covenant of grace and the covenant of promise are one and the same

covenant.

In answer to this, it may be observed,

1. The reason why the covenant of Abraham is emphatically styled the covenant of promise, is, that it contained a peculiar promise of the Messiah. God having made a general promise to Adam, that the feed of the woman should bruise the serpent's head. he faw fit, about two thousand years after, to make a particular promife to Abraham, that the promifed Messiah should be of his feed. But this was no article of the covenant of grace. To promife Abraham, that the Messiah should proceed from his loins, was totally different from promising him salvation, through faith in that promised Messiah. God made the promise of falvation to Abraham in common with all true believers; but he made the promife of raising up the Messiah from his family to him in particular. And this particular promise denominated God's particular covenant with him, the covenant

of promise. This accords with Paul's representation of the matter. "And the scripture foreseeing that God would justify the heathen through faith, preached before the gospel unto Abraham, saying, In thee shall all nations be blessed." It had been promised before, that mankind should be blessed in a Savior to come, but not that the coming Savior should spring from the loins of Abraham; so that it might be said, in him, all nations should be blessed. This peculiar promise God made to Abraham, in that peculiar covenant, which is most properly termed

the covenant of promife.

2. The only reason why believers, under the gospel, are represented as being the children of Abraham, and heirs of the covenant of promife, is, that they are interested in Christ, who was the feed emphatically promifed to Abraham, in the covenant of circumcifion. There is no evidence, in the New Testament, that believers are now in the covenant of circumcifion; but clear evidence to the contrary. For, they are neither under obligation to perform the duties of that covenant, nor entitled to any of its peculiar bleffings. The bond of that covenant does not lie upon them; for they are not required to circumcife either themselves or their families. And it is equally evident, that they are not entitled to any of the peculiar bleffings of that covenant. In that covenant. God promifed to give Abraham a numerous posterity; but he makes no fuch promife to believers under the gofpel. In that covenant, God promised, that Abraham's feed should possess the land of Canaan; but he makes no fuch promise to believers under the gospel. In that covenant, God promised, that Abraham's feed flould enjoy great tempora! prosperity; but he makes no fuch promise to believers under the gospel. In that covenant, God promised, that the Messiah should descend from his famiby; but that promise was fully accomplished at the incarnation of Christ, when the covenant of Abraham entirely ceased as the covenant of promise.

The bleffing of Abraham, therefore, now comes to believers, only through Christ, who descended from his family, agreeably to the covenant of promife. Believers are now faved, upon the simple terms of the covenant of grace, just as the patriarchs were, before the peculiar covenant of Abraham was made; and just as they would have been, had that peculiar covenant never existed. But as they are faved through faith in Christ, who was promised to Abraham as his peculiar feed; so, on that account, and on that account only, they are called the feed of Abraham, and the heirs of the covenant of promife. So the apostle explains the covenant of promife to the believers in Galatia. " Now to Abraham and his feed were the promifes made. He faith not, And to feeds, as of many; but as of one, And to thy feed, which is Christ. That the bleffing of Abraham might come on the Gentiles through Jesus Christ. And if ye be Christ's then are ye Abraham's seed, and heirs according to the promise." Agreeably to this representation, faith in Christ now brings men into that fame covenant of grace; in which the patriarchs were, and in which Abraham himfelf was, before the covenant of promife was made. And this leads us fairly back to the conclusion drawn, before these objections were started, namely, that the covenant of Abraham, which has been added to and taken from the covenant of grace, was entirely distinct from it.

The Doctor feems to apprehend, that this diffinction will destroy one of the strongest arguments in favor of infant baptism. But, perhaps, there is no ground for this apprehension. The covenant of Abraham was founded on the covenant of grace, and designed to form the seed of Abraham into a

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visible church of visible faints, to be continued to the coming of Christ, and from thence to the end of the world. And this appears to be the only folid ground, upon which we can reason, from the covenant of Abraham, in favor of infant baptism. Those, who deny this doctrine, not only deny the covenant of Abraham to be the covenant of grace, but also deny the church, which was built upon that covenant, to have been composed of visible faints. They confider the covenant of Abraham, as a mere political or national covenant; and the church, which was built upon it, as a mere political or national church. And, upon this ground, they confider the purpose of circumcision as very different from the purpose of baptism. But, if the covenant of Abraham was a gracious covenant, and built upon the covenant of grace, and defigned to form a visible church of visible faints, which should continue through all future ages, then the purpose of circumcision was the same as the purpose of baptism in the fame church; and, consequently, baptism takes the place of circumcision, in the same church, and is to be applied to the same subjects, to which circumcision was formerly applied. In short, if the Old and New Testament church be the fame, as we endeavored to prove in the Differtation; then, the analogy between circumcifionand baptism can be supported; and this being supported, it affords a strong presumptive argument in favor of infant baptism. And, if this reasoning carries me into the camp of the anabaptists, it carries me thither, not as a captive but as a conqueror.

SECT. V.

The Doctor's Remarks on the distinction between the Covenant of Grace and the Sinai Covenant," considered.

AFTER showing, in the Dissertation, that the Sinai covenant required the profession and exercise of grace, as the condition, upon which divine favors were promised, we attempted to prove, that it was distinct from the covenant of grace, by two plain arguments. One was, that the covenant of grace existed about two thousand years before the Sinai covenant was made. And the other was, that the covenant of grace has existed near two thousand years since the Sinai covenant was abolished.

The Doctor ingenuously concedes, that these arguments prove what they were designed to prove, namely, that the Sinai covenant, which has been actually abolished, was not the covenant of grace. His concession is in these words: "Indeed, if we take the Sinai covenant merely for that part of this complex constitution which appointed temporary ordinances, ritual and civil, for the Israelites, these taken thus abstractly, and separate from the

" rest, were not the covenant of grace."

But, however, he cannot admit, "that this cov"enant, which was temporary, required the profession
"and exercise of grace, as the condition, upon which
"fpiritual and temporal favors were promised to the
"Jewish nation." And, though seven distinct arguments were offered to prove this proposition; yet, instead of looking them fairly in the face, he only talks round about them, for sive or six pages together. We will, however, pay some attention to his loose, defultory observations.

1. He fays, notwithstanding I afferted, that real holiness was the condition of the Sinai covenant;

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yet, I allowed, that God took the Israelites into that covenant, and became their God, while they were destitute of real holiness.

It is easy to fet this matter in a clear and confistent light. It was one thing, for the Ifraelites to profess holy obedience, and so lay themselves under the bond of the covenant; and quite another thing, to yield hely obedience, and fo fecure the bleffings promifed to them, on that condition. Again; it was one thing, for God to promise special favors to the Ifraelites, upon condition of their yielding holy obedience; and quite another thing, to be under covenant colligation to bestow special favors upon them. Hence it is easy to see, how the Israelites might be under the bond of the covenant, so as to break it, without being in it, fo as to be entitled to its peculiar bleffings. And it is equally easy to see, how God could avouch the Ifraelites to be his people; and engage to be their God, upon their bare profession of holy obedience, without being their God, or bestowing any bleffings on them, in a covenant way. God's engagements were conditional; but theirs were unconditional. They were holden by their covenant, whether they were obedient or difobedient; but God was not holden by his covenant, unless they actually performed that holy obedience, which they promifed. If these observations are just, they not only remove the Doctor's objections, but refute his formidable argument, which threatens to destroy seven of mine with one stroke.

He fays it is a plain undeniable fatt, that God did enter into covenant with some graceless Israelites, and bestow peculiar favors upon them in a covenant way. It is granted, that some graceless Israelites did bring themselves under covenant obligations to God; but how does it appear, that God was brought under covenant obligations to them? It is granted, that God bestowed peculiar favors upon some graceless Is-

raelites;

taclites; but how does it appear, that he bestowed those favors upon them in a covenant way? This is

not a fact either undeniable or proveable.

First, It cannot be proved merely from God's bestowing peculiar favors upon some graceless Israelites. God may bestow peculiar favors in a sovereign way, as well as in a covenant way. And fince he can do this, confistently with his character, there is no reason to suppose, that he bestowed peculiar favors upon the graceless Israelites, at the foot of Sinai, in a covenant way. For, though they were bound to obey, yet he was not bound to reward them, until they did obey. Hence he bestowed peculiar favors upon fome, in a covenant way, while he bestowed peculiar favors upon others, in a sovereign way. As he was under covenant obligation to Moses, Caleb, and Joshua, who were dutiful and obedient; so he bestowed peculiar favors upon them, in a covenant way. But, as he was not under covenant obligation to the graceless part of the congregation of Ifrael, who were undutiful and difobedient; so he bestowed peculiar favors upon them, in a fovereign way. And this was perfectly confishent with the nature and conditions of the Sinai covenant.

Secondly, It cannot be proved, that God bestowed special favors upon the graceless Israelites, in a covenant way, from the general course of his providence in connecting riches with industry, health with temperance, and honor with usefulness. God has a sovereign right to lay before men what motives he pleases, in his providence, to induce them to perform the things, which he designs they should perform. He may prosper one man to make him industrious; and he may honor another man to make him useful. But such outward favors are no token of God's approbation of their persons and characters. For, he has never promised to manifest

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his approbation of men's persons and characters, in the conduct of his providence. Hence, there is no analogy between God's providential dealings and covenant conduct, by which it can be proved, that the blessings bestowed upon the graceles Israelites

were bestowed in a covenant way. But,

Thirdly, There is fomething in the nature of covenanting, which forbids the supposition of God's bestowing peculiar favors upon the Israelites, upon condition of their graceless profession and practice. Though God can bestow favors upon sinners, in a fovereign way, without approving or rewarding their fin; yet he cannot bestow favors upon them, in a covenant way, without making their fin the condition of his favors and rewards. But it is inconfistent with the moral rectitude of God's character, to promife men a reward, if they will commit fuch and fuch fins. Had he, therefore, promifed the graceless Israelites, that he would reward them for making a false and graceless profession of obedience, he would have acted contrary to the rectitude and purity of his own nature. This was observed in the Differtation. And this fingle observation is sufficient, we trust, to disprove the Doctor's undeniable fact, and refute his formidable argument drawn from it. We are now prepared,

2. To untie that knot of absurdities, which the Doctor has presented in a most striking light. He says, page 17th, "It seems then, according to him, that divine sayors were promised in the Sinai coverant, upon condition of perfect obedience to the law, and of repentance, faith in the Mediator, and real though imperfect exercises of grace; and also of a profession of real godliness, though without godly sincerity. These things have the

"appearance of inconfistency."

It is granted, these things, which are here put together, have the appearance of inconsistency.

But

But who put them together? In the Differtation, the point proposed to be proved was stated in these words: "The Sinai covenant required the profession and exercise of grace, as the condition, upon which divine favors were promised." This plain and intelligible proposition was supported by seven plain and distinct arguments. These the Doctor has declined to meddle with, which seems to be some indication of their force and pertinency. But, though he sound no absurdity in the proposition itself, nor in any single argument adduced to prove it; yet he seems to think, he has sound a cluster of absurdities in the proposition and arguments taken together. He suggests, that I made three distinct and inconsistent conditions of the Sinai covenant.

1. Mere profession of real godlines, without god-

ly fincerity.

2. Sincere, though imperfect, exercises of grace.

3. Perfect obedience, or finless persection.

To reply to each of these distinctly, I would observe,

godlinefs, without godly fincerity, was the condition of the covenant. All I faid was, that the Ifraelites did profess real godliness, and when they had made fuch a profession, they laid themselves under the bond of the covenant, which obliged them to suffil it, whether they were fincere or infincere in making it. But I never intimated, that the bare profession of godliness entitled them to the blessings of the covenant, or brought God into covenant with them, so long as they remained destitute of godly fincerity. For, their obligation to God was unconditional; but his obligation to them was conditional.

2. I neither directly nor indirectly said, that fincere, though imperfest, exercises of grace, were the condition of the covenant. It is much to be doubted, whether there are any fincere imperfest exercises of grace;

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or exercises of grace, which are partly holy and partly sinful. It is impossible, perhaps, to conceive, that love and hatred, or submission and opposition, should be blended together, in the same exercise of heart. Holy exercises seem to be perfect in their own nature, and to exclude all sinful defect or imperfection. The exercise of true love is the exercise of pure love: And the exercise of true submission is the exercise of pure submission. Holiness and sin are so repugnant to each other, in their own nature, that they cannot unite together in the same exercise, or affection of heart. It was far, therefore, from my intention, to suggest or affert, that the Sinai covenant required sincere, though imperfect, exercises of grace.

3. The Doctor intimates, that I made perfect obedience, or finless perfection, the condition of the covenant. This he collects from my saying, that the Israelites promised to obey the moral law, which

requires sinless obedience.

It is true, I did fay, that the ten commands were part of that body of laws, which God gave to the Ifraelites, and which they promifed to obey. But this was faying no more than divines in general have faid, and no more than the Doctor himself has implicitly granted. It concerns him, therefore, as well as others, to account for the Ifraelites' promising to obey a law, which he and they allow requires perfect obedience, or finless perfection. But, fince it appears, by his Remarks, that this is a task rather difficult for him to perform, I will take it upon myself.

There is no such thing as a finful exercise of grace; and, therefore, every exercise of grace is finless. There is no such thing as finful obedience; and, therefore, all obedience is finless. Accordingly, when the Israelites promised to obey the moral law, they promised to obey it perfectly; and when they did

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obey the moral law, they did obey it perfectly. But their obedience was, undoubtedly, inconstant; for it is generally granted and believed, that faints are not always in the exercise of grace; or, in other words, that they do not always obey the moral law. it appears, from the history of the people of God, that some of the best among them, did actually difobey fome of the ten commands. But, though God made provision for the Israelites' being finful, yet he made no provision for their being graceless. For, though he might confistently promife to beflow his favors upon condition of perfect obedience; yet, he could not confistently promife to bestow his favors upon condition of perfett disobedience. Their disobedience, therefore, he disapproved; but their obedience he approved and rewarded. It is allowed, by all, that God may approve and reward the real holiness of those, whom he pardons through the atonement of Christ. And, if this be true, then all penitent Israelites could fincerely make, and fincerely keep the Sinai covenant; and God could confiftently be their God, their shield, and their exceeding great reward, notwithstanding the inconstancy of their obedience. This leads me to observe,

In the last place, that what I did say and mean in the proposition, which I laid down, and in the arguments, which I offered to support it, contains no inconfistency. I said, that God required the Israelites to be true faints, as the condition of their enjoying the bleffings of the Sinai covenant: And that they professed to be of this character. And this neither implies that God entered into covenant with them as graceless persons, nor as sinless persons; but as gracious persons of a middle character, who sometimes seel and act right, but sometimes feel and act wrong.

The Doctor's Remarks on the iiid chapter of the Differtation appear unworthy of himfelf, and,

of course, unworthy of particular notice.

CHAPTER III.

The Doctor's Denial that " none are required to prefefs Religion but true Saints," considered.

VE are now come to that point of importance in the present dispute, which the Doctor supposes the whole cause may turn upon. Here, then, his Remarks require particular attention. He allows, that christians ought to make a public profession of religion, and he approves the practice of our churches in admitting members in this form. But he denies, that the compilers of the Platform held fuch an express public manner of profession to be abfolutely necessary, by divine institution. "They conceived," fays he, "that the fubstance of what is required is kept, where there is a real s agreement and consent of a company of faithful 66 persons to meet constantly together in one con-66 gregation for the public worship of God, and 66 their mutual edification; which real agreement 66 and confent they do express by their constant " practice, in coming together for the public wor-66 ship of God, and by their religious subjection to "the ordinances of God there." This passage, from the 4th article of the ivth chapter of the Platform, affords no evidence, that the Compilers did not hold a public profession of religion to be necesfary, by divine institution; because they are not speaking upon the subject of making a profession, but of professors uniting together in a particular church. But it appears, by what they fay in the iiid chapter of the Platform, that they did hold a public profession of religion to be necessary, by divine authority.

authority. The reader is defired, if he have the Platform by him, to turn to the places, which have been mentioned, and form his own opinion of this instance of the Doctor's conduct.

After this groß mifrepresentation, he proceeds to state the principal point in dispute. "The sub"ject," says he, "of our present consideration lies in
these two inquiries, whether those, who, after
ferious examination, find that, so far as they are
conscious, they do sincerely believe the gospel,
and approve and consent to the covenant of grace
therein proposed, may and ought to profess, though
they should so far doubt of, or disbelieve their
being subjects of fanctifying grace, that they
dare not profess that their faith and religion are
faving?

"2. Whether it be not supposeable, and credible, that some who can so profess are not saints

" in heart?"

These two queries may be comprised in this single question: Whether those, who are conscious of sincerely believing the gospel, though they are not faints in heart, ought to make a public profes-

fion of religion?

But this question is quite different from that, which was proposed in the Differtation, and upon which the Doctor allows the whole cause turns. It was proposed, in the Differtation, to prove, that "none but true saints are required to profess religion." And this is the point, which, the Doctor says, the whole cause turns upon. Why, then, did he shift this main point in dispute, and substitute another? It is one question, whether none but saints in heart are required to profess religion? and quite another question, whether none but saints in heart, ought to profess religion? The last question depends upon the first, and cannot be determined, without determining the first. For those, and only those,

those, ought to profess religion, who are required to profess religion. If the Doctor had first proved, that some, who are not faints in heart, are required to profess religion; he might then have fairly drawn the consequence, that some, who are not saints in heart, ought to profess religion. According to all the rules of fair reasoning, it was incumbent upon him, to determine who are required to profess religion, before he undertook to determine a case of conscience, which turned wholly upon that point. By thus shifting the fundamental point in dispute, he has practically given up the whole cause. Here, then, I might justly dismiss the subject of this chapter; but, for the fake of illustrating a practical truth of great importance, I will distinctly consider the four following questions.

1. Does God require any but real faints to pro-

fess religion?

2. What is the effential difference between a doubting finner and a doubting faint?

3. Is it the duty of a doubting finner to profess

religion?

4. Is it the duty of a doubting faint to profess re-

Question 1. Does God require any but real faints to profess religion? This question must be answer-

ed in the negative, for various reasons.

1. None suppose, that God requires all sinners to profess religion. Mr. Stoddard supposes, that none but morally honest and orthodox sinners ought to profess their faith. And our author restricts this duty to such sinners only, as are conscious of sincerely believing the gospel, and consenting to the covenant of grace. Should it be granted, that such sinners may be found; yet, it is much to be doubted, whether any divine command can be found, which requires sinners of this description, in distinction from others, to profess religion. The Bitance of the suppose of the su

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ble requires all true faints, who love Christ supremely, to profess him publicly before the world. But where does it require any, who are destitute of such fupreme affection to Christ, to make such a profession? If the commands, which require faints in heart to profess religion, do not require the same duty of all finners, they do not require it of any. And if the commands directed to faints, do not require finners to profess religion, what commands do? Are there any directed to doubting finners in particular, which require them, in distinction from those, who know themselves to be graceless, to profess their saith? If there be any such commands, they have never yet been pointed out. And until they are pointed out, we shall not scruple to say, that no finner, of any description whatever, is required to make a christian profession.

2. To suppose, that God requires doubting finners, in distinction from others, to profess religion, is to suppose, that he grounds his requisition upon their false opinion of themselves. A doubting sinner, according to the Doctor's description of one, is a person who is conscious of believing the gospel, and confenting to the covenant of grace; but who, at the same time, is uncertain whether his belief of the gospel and consent to the covenant of grace, arises from holiness of heart. He doubts whether he is a faint, and he doubts whether he is a finner. But he is, however, totally destitute of grace; and, therefore, his doubting with respect to the state of his mind, necessarily implies a falfe opinion of himfelf. Now, it is abfurd to suppose, that God should require fuch a doubting finner, in diffinction from others, to profess religion. Such a requisition would be naturally calculated to lead finners to form a false and unreasonable opinion of themselves. And can we suppose, that God would give countenance, by his command, to fuch delufion and felf-deception,

felf-deception, contrary to his folemn caution,

" Let no man deceive himself?"

3. If God should require doubting sinners to profess religion, he would require them to ast contrary to his first and great command, which says to every man, "Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart, and with all thy mind, and with all thy strength." This precept requires every person to have religion, and to have it immediately. But doubting sinners are destitute of the love here enjoined; and, therefore, if God should require them in particular to profess religion, he would require them to ast without that love, which he requires them to exercise in every action. So that this first and great command, amounts to a prohibition against any sinner's professing religion, with an un-

holy or graceless heart.

4. All who are destitute of grace are implicitly forbidden to make a religious profession. "But unto the wicked God faith, What hast thou to do to declare my flatutes, or that thou shouldest take my covenant in thy mouth?" The person here addressed appears to be a strict observer of the externals of religion. For, in the preceding verses, God fays to the fame person, " I will not reprove thee for thy facrifices or thy burnt offerings, to have been continually before me." This person, however, properly reprefents finners in general, and what God fays to him he implicitly fays to all, who are destitute of grace. Solomon fays, "When thou vowest a vow unto God, defer not to pay it; for he has no pleasure in fools: Pay that which thou hast vowed. Better is it that thou shouldest not vow, than that thou fhouldest 'vow and not pay." By fools here, the wife man means finners, and thefe he implicitly forbids to make vows and covenants, which they have no heart to fulfil. To the fame import is that noted passage in the eleventh chapter of

of the first Epistle to the Corinthians. "Whosoever shall eat this bread and drink this cup of the Lord unworthily, shall be guilty of the body and blood of the Lord. But let a man examine himfelf, and so let him eat of that bread, and drink of that cup. For he that eateth and drinketh unworthily, eateth and drinketh damnation to himfelf, not differning the Lord's body." The examination here enjoined upon the Corinthians, plainly refers to the heart, and not to external conduct, or doctrinal knowledge. They had no occasion of examining themselves, whether they understood the design of the Lord's supper, or the proper external mode of attending it. But they had great occasion of examining themselves, whether they had attended the memorials of Christ's death, with a spiritual discerning of his spiritual beauty and excellence. This, then, is the plain and important meaning of the apostle's words: "Let a man examine his heart. and if he finds it pure and upright, let him eat of that bread, and drink of that cup, which is instituted for the upright in heart. But if he finds his heart blind and corrupt, let him beware of eating and drinking judgment to himfelf." These passages of scripture, which we have mentioned, do, by a fair construction, exclude all who are destitute of grace, from making a profession of religion, and from coming to the table of the Lord.

5. If God should require doubting sinners to profess supreme love to him, he would require them to profess a salsehood. They love themselves supremely, and, therefore, cannot, consistently with truth, profess supreme assection to their Creator. The graceless Israelites, who professed supreme love to God in the wilderness, are charged with hyporisy and lying. "When he slew them, then they fought him; and returned and inquired early after God. And they remembered that God was their

rock, and the high God their redeemer. Nevertheless, they did flatter him with their mouth, and lied unto him with their tongues. For their heart was not right with him, neither were they stedfast in his covenant." When these persons made a profesfion of religion, it feems, they were very ferious and conscientious. They fought God, returned to him, and inquired early after him. They remembered his sparing and preserving mercy. And, so far as they were confcious of their own feelings, they doubtless thought, that they loved God, confented to his covenant, and were willing to fulfil the conditions of it. But yet these sincere sinners are charged with flattering God, and even lying to him, because their hearts were destitute of saving grace. The Doctor, indeed, could exculpate fuch fincere finners, because they think they say nothing but what is true. This looks like a plaufible excuse. But its plausibility arises from not distinguishing between voluntary and involuntary errors. If a man thinks another's heart is good, when it is not, his error is involuntary; but if he thinks his own heart is good, while it is totally corrupt, his error is voluntary. Every man may know his own heart, if he will but honeftly and impartially examine it. So that all false professors, if they are ignorant of their own hearts, are willingly ignorant of them; and voluntary ignorance can afford them no excuse. The most fincere hypocrite is chargeable with flattery and falsehood, in professing to love God fupremely. God, therefore, neither requires nor allows doubting finners to profess that fupreme love to him, which they cannot profess, without flattery and lying. He requires finners to have faving faith, before they profess to embrace the gospel, and consent to the covenant of grace.

I will now venture to add,

6. The Doctor himself appears to maintain, that none but true believers are required to profess religion. He says in his Discourse, page 26th, "That " qualification, whatever it be, by which we are " favingly united to Christ, has a chain of privice leges connected with it, issuing in eternal salv tion. "These privileges are also connected with the effen-" tial and fundamental virtues and graces required " in the gospel. The habit and principle of these is connected with the proper acts and expressions " of them in the life. And these expressions and evidences of inward fanctification are connected with a right to peculiar external privileges: Whence arise special obligations, a compliance "with which has further bleffings annexed. Du-"ties qualify for, and entitle to privileges; and " privileges qualify for, and give a right or warrant "to perform duties. But the relation, reference, " or respect which the duties and bleffings of the covenant have to each other in this connexion, requires to be further confidered. And in the " first place the order in which they are connected is to be noted. Some are prior, or before others " in the order of nature, or of time. Thus in the " order of nature the call of the gospel, accompa-" nied with the influences of the Spirit, is a divine " favor going before faving faith. Faith, (faving " faith) whether we consider it as a duty, or a gift " of God, precedes a faving union to, and interest " in Christ, and justification and righteousness, with s all those benefits which accompany or flow from it. The belief of the heart is presuppos-66 ED IN THE PROFESSION OF THE MOUTH."

By the belief of the heart here, we are obliged to understand faving faith. The phraseology requires this meaning. The belief of the heart is a phrase commonly used by divines, to distinguish saving faith from a mere speculative or destrinate

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faith. And the apostle uses the same phrase in the same sense when he says, "With the heart man believeth unto righteousness." Besides, the connexion, in which the Doctor uses this mode of speaking, obliges us to understand him as meaning faving faith. For, the faith which he had just been speaking of, was that which originates from God, which flows from the Spirit, which unites to Christ, and which iffues in eternal falvation. After fuch a striking description of faving faith, he immediately adds, "The Belief of the Heart is presup-POSED IN THE PROFESSION OF THE MOUTH." Now, if this belief of the heart, in this chain of gracious qualifications iffuing in eternal falvation, do not fignify faving faith, it will be extremely difficult to perceive the Doctor's good fense in this long chain of reasoning. But if it does signify faving faith, as we did suppose, and do still suppose, then this strong and invincible chain must bind the Doctor and every other person to believe, that God requires none but real faints, or those who have faving grace, to profess religion. And if the whole cause must turn upon this point, it must turn in our favor.

Question II. What is the effential difference between a doubting sinner and a doubting saint?

The plausibility of all the Doctor says to prove, that fome who are destitute of grace ought to make a profession of religion, arises from his making no distinction between doubting sinners and doubting saints. For he reasons thus: "If some who doubt whether they are true believers may and ought to profess their saith, as all allow, then such evidences as leave it uncertain whether a man be a true believer, may satisfy him that he may and ought to be a professor." Through all his observations on this head, he ranks all doubting persons together, whether saints or sinners, without any distinction.

tinction. This ferves to confuse the mind, and to throw the real subject of dispute into obscurity. For we do not mean to deny, that doubting faints ought to profess their love to Christ, and attend his gracious institutions; though we mean to deny, that this is the duty of doubting sinners. This difference in point of duty, between doubting sinners and doubting saints, arises from an effential difference in their religious characters. And the question now is, Wherein does this essential difference consist?

In answer to this, it may be observed,

1. A doubting finner is wholly destitute of grace. He has not the love of God in him. His heart is full of evil. All his moral exercises are entirely finful. But a doubting saint is one who is born of God, who has a new heart, and who is a partaker of the divine nature. All allow, that a person of this description may be doubtful, whether he has passed from death to life, or really become a new creature. In a word, a doubting saint has some grace, but a doubting sinner has none. This leads

me to observe,

2. That a doubting finner has no evidence of grace. Grace is the only proper evidence of grace. Though a finner may be confcious of believing the gospel in speculation, and of feeling such religious affections as he calls love, repentance, submission, and zeal in the cause of religion; yet he has no right to conclude, from any or all these things, that he is a true saint. The reason is, all these things are distinct from grace, and may exist without the least degree of holiness. Accordingly, the scripture represents grace as the only proper evidence of itself. "If children, then heirs," says the apostle Paul. And the apostle John says, "My little children, let us not love in words, neither in tongue; but in deed and in truth. And hereby we know that we are of the truth, and shall assure our hearts

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before him." A doubting finner has no fuch true love, and therefore no fuch real evidence of grace. But a doubting faint has fome fuch true love, and therefore fome fuch real evidence of grace.

Question III. Is it the duty of a doubting finner

to profess religion?

The Doctor fays this is the duty of fome doubting finners. He maintains, that any person, who is conscious of believing the gospel, and consenting to the covenant of grace, may and ought to profess his faith, notwithstanding any doubts and sears con-

cerning his state of grace.

But if no finner have any religion, nor any evidence of religion, then no finner, whether doubtful, or not doubtful of the true state of his mind, has a right to make a religious profession. His first work is to believe in Christ, and give God the supreme affection of his heart. He ought to become a true friend of God, and have evidence of his friendship to him, before he professes to be his friend. If, while destitute of grace, he should profess religion, God might justly demand, "Who hath required this at your hand?" Or fay, " Friend, how camest thou in hither, not having a wedding garment?" And to fuch ferious and pertinent questions, he must be entirely speechless. If a doubting finner ought to determine his duty, with respect to professing religion, either by the commands of God, or by the exercises of his own heart, then he ought to determine, that he has no right to name the name of Christ, nor appear among his friends at his table.

This folution of the question before us, we are happy to confirm, by the authority of a most eminent Casuist. Mr. BAXTER asks this question.*

"May an ungodly man receive the facrament, who knoweth not himself to be ungodly? Ans. No;

For he ought to know it, and his finful ignorance of his own condition, will not make his fin his

duty."

Again, he puts another question of a similar nature, in a different form." "Wherein lieth the sin of an hypocrite, and ungodly person, if he do receive? Anf. His fin is, 1. In lying and hypocrify; in that he professeth unfeignedly to repent of fin, and to be refolved for an holy life, and to believe in Christ, and to accept him on his own covenant terms, and to give up himself to God, as his Father, his Savior and Sanctifier, and to forfake the flesh, the world, and the devil; when indeed he never did any of this; but fecretly abhorreth it at his heart, and will not be perfuaded to it: And so all this profession, and his very covenanting itself, and his receiving, as it is a professing sign, is nothing but a very lie. And what it is to lie to the Holy Ghost, the case of Ananias and Sapphira telleth us. 2. It is usurpation to come and lay claim to those benefits, which he hath no title to. 3. It is a profanation of those holy mysteries, to be thus used, and it is a taking of God's name in vain, who is a jealous God, and will be fanctified of all that draw near unto him. 4. It is a wrong to the church of God, and the communion of faints, and the honor of the christian religion, that fuch ungodly hypocrites intrude as members.

"Object. But it is no lie, because they think they fay true in their profession. Ans. That is through their sinful negligence, and self-deceit: And he is a liar that speaks a salsehood, which he may and ought to know is a salsehood, though he does not know it. There is a liar in rashness and negligence, as well as of set purpose." It now appears, we trust, that a doubting sinner has no more right to profess religion, than one who knows himself to be graceless.

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Question IV. Is it the duty of a doubting faint

to profess religion?

It is faid by many, and often repeated by the Doctor, that those who maintain saving grace to be a necessary qualification for communion at the Lord's table, must, in order to be consistent, deny it to be the duty of a doubting saint to profess religion and attend special ordinances. For, it is infinuated, if grace be absolutely necessary, then the assurance of grace is equally necessary, to justify a person's access to the Lord's supper. But if we can make it appear, that a doubting saint ought to profess religion and attend the sacrament, then we shall remove this supposed embarrassment from our side of the question. Let us inquire, then, whether a doubting saint may lawfully and conscientiously

profess religion?

This question may be answered in the affirmative, upon principles already established. We have shown, that a doubting faint is a subject of faving grace, and, being a subject of faving grace, has the witness in himself, that he is in a state of grace. His own exercises of grace are real evidences in his favor; and, so far as he discerns these, he difcerns real evidences of being born again and reconciled to God. These evidences obscurely dif cerned give him hopes, while his remaining imperfections and corruptions give him doubts. In this situation he is a doubting saint. But since his hopes are well founded, and the commands of God apply to him, and require him to profess religion, it is his duty to profess Christ before men. He loves Christ fupremely, and he thinks he loves him fupremely; his only difficulty is, that he doubts of the fincerity of his love. But his doubts are groundless, and ought to be given up; and though he does not wholly give them up, yet if his hopes fo far prevail, that his conscience tells him it is his duty to profess religion,

religion, his way is clear, though he has not attained to full affurance of grace. Mr. Edwards fays, and our author fays the fame, that the distate of a right conscience lays a man under immediate obligation to act. As soon, therefore, as a doubting faint has a prevailing hope of his good estate, and feels the dictate of his conscience requiring him to profess religion, it immediately becomes his duty to profess Christ before men, and attend his special institutions. His opinion and conduct are well founded, that is, upon real evidence, and therefore will be well accepted in the fight of God, who looketh on the heart, and requireth truth in the inward parts.

Here again we shall take shelter under the wing of Mr. BAXTER, who has accurately stated and judiciously solved the principal difficulties, which have been or can be started, upon this case of conscience. He asks and answers a number of impor-

tant questions.*

"Quest. Must a sincere christian receive, that is uncertain of his sincerity, and in continual doubt-

ing?

"Anf. Two preparations are necessary to this sacrament; the general preparation, which is a state of grace; and the particular preparation, which consistes in his present actual sitness: And all the question is of this. And to know this, you must further distinguish between immediate duty and more remote, and between degrees of doubtfulness in christians. 1. The nearest immediate duty of the doubting christian is, to use the means to have his doubts removed, till he know his case, and then his next duty is, to receive the sacrament; and both these still remain his duty in this order. And if he say, I cannot be resolved, when I have done my best. Yet certainly it is some sin of his own, that keep-

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eth him in the dark, and hindereth his affurance: and therefore duty ceafeth not to be duty: The law of Christ still obligeth him, both to get affur. ance and to receive; and the want both of the knowledge of his state, and of his receiving the facrament, are his continual fin, if he live in it ever fo long, through these scruples. But you will fay, What if still he cannot be resolved whether he have true faith and repentance, or not? What shall he do while he is in doubt? I answer, it is one thing to ask, what is his duty in this case, and another thing to ask, What is the finaller or less dangerous sin? Still his duty is both to get the knowledge of his heart, and to communicate. But while he finneth (through infirmity) in failing of the first, were he better also omit the other or not? To be well refolved of that, you must discern, 1. Whether his judgment of himself, do rather incline to think and hope that he is sincere in his repentance and faith, or that he is not? 2. Whether the consequences are like to be good or bad to him? If his hopes that he is fincere, be as great or greater than his fears of the contrary, then there is no fuch ill consequent to be seared as may hinder his communicating; but it is his best way to do it, and wait on God in the use of his ordinance. But if the perfuafion of his gracelessness be greater than the hopes of his fincerity, then he must observe how he is like to be affected, if he do communicate. If he find it is like to clear up his mind, and increase his hopes by the actuating of his grace, he is yet best to go: But if he find that his heart is like to be overwhelmed with horror and funk into despair, by running into the supposed guilt of unworthy receiving, then it will be worse to do it, than to omit it."

Again, he puts another similar question. "Must no man come to the facrament, that is uncertain or doubtful of the sincerity of his faith and repentance?

Anf. 1. He that is sure of his unsoundness and hypocrify should not come. He that upon trial is not sure, yet so far as he understands his own heart and life, doth judge himself an impenitent hypocrite, should use other means to know himself certainly, and sullier to repent before he cometh. And though some melancholy and timorous persons be salfely persuaded that they are impenitent, yet it is better that such forbear the sacrament, while they use other means for the better acquaintance with themselves, than that all the hypocrites and wicked impenitent people be told that it is their duty to come, if they can but make themselves uncertain,

whether they be impenitent or not.

4 2. But he that after the best endeavors he can use to know himself, can say, I am not certain that I truly repent, but as far as I know my own heart I do; is not to be hindered from the facrament by that uncertainty. 1. For few of the best attain to a full certainty of their own fincerity. 2. And all that can be expected from us is, that we proceed according to the best of our understandings, and the best acquaintance with ourselves that we can get. 3. And otherwise it would keep us from all other duties proper to true christians; as from thankfgiving for our justification, fanctification, adoption, &c. 4. He that only crreth about the nature of true faith and repentance, and not about the reality of it in himself, should not be kept away by that error; as if he can fay, As far as I know my own heart, I am willing to part with every known fin, and. to know every fin that I may part with it; but I am afraid this is not repentance; or he that faith, I beheve the gospel to be true, and I am willing to have Christ upon his covenant terms, and wholly resign myself unto him; but I am afraid yet that I am not a true believer. This person is truly penitent, and is a true believer, and therefore ought to come.

5. The case de esse, whether a man be a true christian or not, is in order before the case de scire, whether he be certain of it, or not. He that is an hypocrite, is bound by God first to know that he is so, and then to repent, and then to communicate. He that is sincere, is bound by God, to know that he is sincere, and to be thankful, and to communicate. And man's neglect of one duty will not make God change his laws, which still bind him to all this at once."*

Thus it appears, by what has been faid and quoted, that none but true faints are required, and of confequence, ought to make a publick profession of religion. And if this cardinal point be firmly established, the Doctor allows, the whole cause must turn in our favor.

* P. 678.



CHAPTER IV.

The Doctor's Remarks on "the description of visible Saints," considered.

CINCE the Doctor's idea of visible saints appears to be taken from his idea of the judgment of charity, which will fall under confideration in the next chapter, I shall here only rectify his misreprefentation of one particular expression in the Differtation. "It is a given point, I faid, that all visible faints are proper subjects of special ordinances." "If so," says he, "then some graceless persons are " proper subjects of special ordinances; and cer-"tainly all proper subjects have a right of admission and access to them." He had made a distinction between the right of admission and the right of accefs, with which I expressly concurred. It was to be prefumed, therefore, that my expression had respect to the right of admission only, and not any respect to the right of access. My description of visible faints was immediately connected with the right of admission, which was to be considered in the next chapter. And this connexion directed and restricted my meaning to the right of admission only. Befides, I explained it by the very next words, which were these: " If it could only be determined, therefore, who are visible saints, ONE PART of the present controversy would be completely settled." Why not the whole? Because it is not a given point, that all yisible faints have a right of access, though it is a given point, that all visible saints have a right of admission. This was a full and fair explanation of my observation, which the Doctor has so repeatedly misinterpreted, and misapplied in his Remarks. He is defired to try this case, in the same court, in which, he fays, the right of access is to be tried, CHAPTER

CHAPTER V.

The Doctor's Remarks on "the right of admission," considered.

THE question, which we proposed to discuss, in this chapter of the Differtation, was stated in these words: "Whether the church may admit any to communion, but those who appear to them to be real faints?" This statement the Doctor calls ambiguous, and says, "If the meaning of it be, "whether a church may or ought to admit any but fuch as exhibit or hold forth to their view signs or evidences of grace, it is expressly declared in the Discourse on the Church, that none may or ought to be admitted but visible saints, who exhibit such evidence of grace, that, according to gospel rule, by which a church ought to judge of professors, they ought to be held, reputed, and regarded as true saints, in a judgment of charity."

This looks very much like our statement; but it appears, by what the Doctor says afterwards, that the terms held, repu'ed, and regarded as true faints, are ambiguous. For, he does not mean by them, that we are to think or believe, that a visible saint, who exhibits scriptural signs of grace, is a true saint. We will give his opinion at large, in his own words.

"We may hold and receive one as a true faint in a judgment of charity, of whom we have no fuch evidence as will oblige us to determine, ab folutely, whether he be certainly, or most probably a faint in heart. For the judgment of charity is formed according to the rule which is given to the church, to distinguish those whom they are

to admit to communion, from those who are to be refused. According to this rule, professors of se true religion, who are not scandalous, are all 66 visible faints, and to be received and held for strue saints in a judgment of charity. And yet " the scriptures affure us, that many of these, and " no one knows how many, are not fincere. So 66 that after it appears ever fo plain that men's lives and creed, and profession are good, and conse-" quently that they are visible faints, we know not whether one half of them are fincere. And if we absolutely believe that each one is a true " faint, it is as abfurd and unreasonable, as if we " should absolutely believe that each ticket in a " lottery will draw a prize; or that the first, second, third numbers, &c. will be prizes, though " we know there will be many blanks: For a man's se being a visible saint, and so a proper object of, se christian charity, makes it no more certain that 66 he is a faint in heart, than his having a ticket " makes it certain that it will be a prize. Men may be as pert and positive as they please, in st their affertions, but unless they can prove that so all, or at least the greater part of visible saints, " who are to be received as true faints in a judg-" ment of charity, are also real faints in heart, they will never persuade reasonable men, who ground " their belief only on fufficient evidence, that none 66 may be received to the communion and charity of a church, but those who they have reason to 66 think or believe absolutely are certainly, or at least " most probably true faints."

In this paragraph, the Doctor afferts, that we know not whether one half of professors are sincere. This is a very safe affertion; because we know not any professor's heart. Again, he afferts, that a man's being a visible saint, and so a proper object of christian charity, makes it no more certain, that

he is a faint in heart, than his having a ticket in a lottery, makes it certain that he will draw a prize. If by no more certain he means barely not certain, this is a fafe affertion; because we all allow, that there are no certain figns of grace, by which we can know that others are good men. But he proceeds a step further, and afferts, that unless we can prove that the greater part of visible saints are saints in heart, we have no right to think or believe, absolutely, that the most eminent visible faint is certainly, or most probably, a faint in heart. Here seems to be a studied obscurity. The adverbs absolutely, certainly, and most probably, either have no meaning, or convey false ideas. If we may really think or believe, that a visible faint is a faint in heart; then we may absolutely think or believe, that he is most probably, or certainly, a faint in heart. For, our absolutely thinking or believing this of a visible faint, does not amount to our bare knowing, or probably knowing, or most probably knowing, or certainly knowing, that he is a faint in heart.

The Doctor's affertion, stripped of all obscurity, is no more than faying, unless the church can know, that more than half of credible professors are faints in heart, they cannot, according to the doctrine of chances, really believe or think, that any professor, however pious in appearance, is a faint in heart. But, what has the dostrine of chances to do in this case? Is the judgment of charity to'be formed upon it? The Doctor fays no; and blames us for faying, in the Differtation, that he argued from this topic. But, it now fully appears, that he did argue from it, does argue from it, and infilts that we must argue from it. For, he says, we must prove, that more than half of credible professors are faints in heart, before we may venture to fay, that the church must receive none to communion, but those who they think or believe are subjects of faving

grace. This we grant is true, if the judgment of charity must be whelly founded on the dostrine of chances. But we deny, that the judgment of charity is to be founded upon this dostrine, for two reasons.

One is, that we cannot form any judgment at all, respecting the sincerity of a visible faint, according to the doctrine of chances. Since God has no where told us, what proportion of visible faints are fincere, we cannot determine whether more or lefs than half are fincere, and confequently cannot form any judgment at all, according to the doctrine of chances, whether it is probable, or improbable, that any particular professor is a saint in heart. When we know the proportion between the number of blanks and prizes in a lottery, we may form some probable opinion, whether a particular ticket will prove fortunate. If there be as many prizes as blanks, then we may determine the chance is equal, that any particular ticket will draw a prize. But if the number of blanks be more than double to the number of prizes, then it is probable, that any particular ticket will draw a blank. But if we are totally ignorant of the proportion between the blanks and prizes in a lottery, we can form no probable opinion at all, respecting the fortune of any particular ticket. Just so it is in the case before us. Since we have no knowledge of the proportion between fincere and infincere profesfors, we can form no probable opinion at all, whether any particular professor be a faint in heart, according to the doctrine of chances. This, therefore, cannot be the ground of a judgment of charity.

But, there is another reason why the judgment of charity is not to be built upon the doctrine of chances. It is this. All visible saints exhibit figns of grace; and these afford a proper soundation for a judgment of charity. Tickets have no figns of success. The first number has no more figns of

fuccess

fuccess than the second, or third, or last. But, a visible saint has more signs of grace, than one who is not a visible faint. And one visible saint has more figns of grace than another. This is agreeable to the Doctor's opinion. He fays, and all the world agree with him, the judgment of charity ought to keep pace with the figns of grace. If one profesfor exhibits more and clearer figns of sincerity, than of infincerity, then we have more reason to think he is fincere, than infincere. Or if one professor exhibits more and clearer figns of fincerity than another, then we have more reason to think he is fincere, than the other, who exhibits fewer and lefs clear figns of fincerity. Or if any particular professor exhibits many and great signs of sincerity, and no figns to the contrary, then our charity may rise in proportion to his visibility of grace, though it falls short of absolute certainty or full assurance. So that the figns of grace, which appear in professors themselves, not only lay a proper foundation for a judgment of charity in their favor; but for a judgment of charity, in some cases, which amounts to the highest probability, or that which is next to moral certainty. The church's charity, therefore, ought to be in exact proportion to the figns of grace, which appear in every proponent, without the least regard to the doctrine of chances, which can neither increase, nor diminish the signs of grace, upon which alone their judgment of charity can be reafonably founded. If they knew the exact proportion between sincere and insincere professors, this knowledge would not destroy the signs of grace in any particular proponent, and therefore ought not to alter their opinion of him. But, fince they are utterly ignorant of the proportion between true and false professors, this proportion ought not fo much as be brought into view, in forming their judgment of charity; but they ought to admit such, and only such, as bear probable marks of

fincerity.

Uncertainty does not destroy probability. It is uncertain whether my friend, whom I faw yesterday, in high health, is now alive; but yet it is very probable he is now alive. So, it is uncertain whether the most amiable and shining professor is a saint in heart; but yet it is probable, and even most probable, that he is a subject of faving grace. Hence the Doctor's fimilitude is totally foreign from his purpose, because it proves the very thing which he meant to disprove. It proves, that uncertainty does not destroy probability. So that, notwithstanding all he has said about the uncertain proportion between fincere and infincere professors, and about the uncertainty of the figns of grace; it still remains true, that uncertain figns of grace may be probable, highly probable, and most probable signs of fincerity, in those who exhibit them. And, upon this folid ground, the church may form a rational as well as fcriptural judgment of charity, concerning those, whom they admit to communion in christian ordinances.

We now pass to consider the Doctor's distinction between a private and public judgment of charity.

"There is," fays he, "a distinction between the judgment of charity, and an absolute belief of the good estate of professors, which is plainly intimated by fundry of our approved divines. Thus Mr. Shepherd distinguishes between church charity, and experimental charity, as he phraseth it. Meaning by the former, that hope, which we ought to have concerning professors in general, and their children; and by the latter, that more consident persuasion, we may have of the sincerity of some, who adorn their profession in a peculiar manner. So Mr. Edwards distinguishes between the public and private judgment. And

"he plainly holds, that men, whose profession and conversation are unexceptionable, are to be re-

" garded as objects of public charity, whatever fufpicions and fears any may entertain from what

"they have observed."

The Doctor produces these authorities to confirm his representation of the judgment of charity, which he says is sounded upon evidence, which does not oblige us to believe or think, in our private opinion, that the person, who exhibits it, is a saint in heart. To demolish this distinction between a public and private judgment of charity, I would

observe,

1. It is impossible to form such a judgment of charity as the Doctor pleads for. In the exercise of christian charity, which excludes bias, prejudice, or prepossession, our judgment, in favor or against any person, will be in exact proportion to evidence. We shall neither believe more nor less concerning his piety, than the evidence, which he exhibits, obliges us to believe. If he exhibits probable evidence of grace, we shall judge that he is gracious; but if not, we shall judge that he is graceless. This will be our real opinion. And the reason of it is obvious. In the exercise of christian charity, we cannot believe without evidence, nor against evidence. And this holds true, in respect to a public as well as a private judgment of charity. We cannot form a public judgment of charity in favor of any one's piety, upon any evidence, which will not oblige us to form the fame private judgment of his fincerity. The truth of this every one may perceive, by attending to the exercises of his own mind, in forming any particular opinion. It is palpably abfurd to suppose, that the church can form a public judgment of charity in favor of a proponent, upon that very evidence, which obliges them to believe, in their private epinion, that he is destitute of grace.

2. The

2. The Doctor's representation of the judgment of charity, stands fairly refuted by Mr. Edwards, in those very passages of his Book, which he has referred to, in support of it. He says, "Mr. Edwards distinguishes between the public and priwate judgment." It is true, he does make a distinction between the public judgment of the church, and the private opinion of individual members, with great propriety and precision. And this distinction follows his most just and accurate definition of the judgment of charity. I will give both in his own words,* which deserve to be read and understood, by every one who wishes to be acquaints

ed with the facramental controversy.

"When I speak, in the question, of a being godof ly or gracious in the eye of a christian judgment, " I intend fomething further than a kind of mere co negative charity, implying that we forbear to cen-" fure, or condemn a man, because we don't know 66 but that he may be godly, and therefore forbear 66 to proceed on the foot of fuch a censure or judg-"ment in our treatment of him: As we would "kindly entertain a stranger, not knowing but in " fo doing we entertain an angel or precious faint " of God. But I mean a positive judgment, " founded on some positive appearance, or visibility, " fome outward manifestations that ordinarily ren-" der the thing PROBABLE. There is a difference 66 between suspending our judgment, or forbearing " to condemn, or having some hope that possibly "the thing may be so, and so hoping the best; and 45 a positive judgment in favor of a person. For " an having fome hope, only implies that a man is " not in utter despair of a thing, though his pre-"vailing opinion may be otherwise, or he may suf-pend his opinion. Though we can't know a man " believes that Fefus is the Messiah, yet we expect E 2 66 fome

^{*} Humble Inquiry, p. 5.

"fome positive manifestation or visibility of it, to be a ground of our charitable judgment: So I fuppose the case is here. When I speak of christian judgment, I mean a judgment wherein men do properly exercise reason, and have their reason under the due insluence of love and other christian principles; which don't blind reason, but regulate its exercises; being not contrary to reason, though they be very contrary to censori-

66 oufness, or unreasonable niceness and rigidness."

This great man here supposes, that the judgment of charity is founded on positive evidence, and such positive evidence as amounts to such probability as obliges a man to have more than a bare hope, even a prevailing opinion, that the person, in whose favor he forms it, is a subject of grace. This judgment of charity he also supposes, each member of a church must form, in favor of any particular perfon, whom he votes for, or admits to full communion. But in case there is a diversity of opinions among the members of the church, as to the admission of a particular proponent, then this judicious Author makes a distinction between public and private charity; or between the judgment of the majority and the judgment of the minority in the church. This distinction now follows in his own words.

"I fay in the eye of the CHURCH'S judgment, because it is properly a visibility to the eye of the public charity, and not of a private judgment, that gives a person a right to be received as a visible saint by the Public. If any are known to be persons of an honest character, and appear to be of good understanding in the doctrines of Christianity, and particularly those doctrines that teach the grand condition of salvation, and the nature of true saving religion, and publicly and seriously profess the great and main things wherein

wherein the effence of religion or godliness conso fists, and their conversation is agreeable; this 66 justly recommends them to the good opinion of the Public, whatever suspicions and fears any coparticular person, either minister, or some other, " may entertain, from what he in particular has ob-66 ferved, perhaps from the manner of his expressing 66 himself in giving an account of his experiences, " or an obscurity in the order and method of his experiences, &c. The minister, in receiving 66 him to the communion of the church, is to act as " a public officer, and in behalf of the public fociety, and not merely for himself, and therefore is to be governed, in acting, by a proper visibili-

"ty of godliness in the eye of the PUBLIC."

Mr. Edwards is, in this place, speaking of the proponent's right to be admitted into the church. And he founds his right of admission upon the charity of the church in general. And to fix his meaning, he not only uses the most guarded expressions, but puts the word Church in capitals, to distinguish it from the pastor, or a few individual members, who might differ from the majority in their private opinion of the proponent's qualifications for admifsion. He does not say, that those who entertain fcruples and fears about the piety of the proponent, ought to vote for his admission, contrary to their private opinion; but only that their private opinion ought not to lead them to object against his admission, or deter the pastor from being active in admitting him agreeably to the good opinion of the major part of the church. If it be possible to collect a man's opinion from his most precise and accurate declaration of it, we have a right to fay, that Mr. Edwards did not maintain that opinion, with respect to the judgment of charity, which the Doctor represents him as holding, but quite a different one, His distinction between a public and private judgment has respect solely to the conduct of individuals, whose private opinion of a proponent's qualifications differs from the private opinion of the public, or majority of the church. And he is so far from supposing, that an individual brother ought to vote for a proponent, contrary to his private opinion, that he expressly declares, that every brother must have a private positive judgment of charity in sayor of every one, whom he admits into the church. And this sentiment he keeps up, and carries through his accurate and masterly Treatise on the terms of communion.

Had the Doctor found any expressions in Mr. Edwards's works, which appeared to contradict his own opinion upon the facramental subject, he would have had a good right to have quoted Mr. Edwards against himself. But he had no right to quote Mr. Edwards's words, in which he defines and declares his opinion, in direct contradiction to his own declarations, and virtually say, that Mr. Edwards does not mean, what he expressly declares he does mean. Mr. Edwards knew how to make a man feel the

impropriety of fuch conduct.

3. The Doctor's representation of the judgment of charity in his Remarks, is resuted by his own representation of it in his Discourse. In that, he says, "As we have no certain evidence of inward fanctification in another, no more can be discerned than fallible signs, which give us reason to hope and judge it probable, that such a man is a faint in heart. This is all the visibility which grace has in the eye of charity. And the judge ment must keep pace with the evidence on which it is grounded." Here the Doctor declares, that the judgment of charity must be founded on positive evidence, and such positive evidence as gives reason to hope and judge that it is probable, the person, in whose favor it is formed,

is a faint in heart; and this judgment must keep pace with the evidence, upon which it is grounded.

But, in his Remarks, he fays, "We may hold 66 and receive a person as a true saint, in a judg-" ment of charity, of whom we have no fuch evi-" dence as will oblige us to determine, whether it " is PROBABLE he is a faint in heart." These two representations are contradictory, and one must refute the other. The last does not refute the first; but the first fairly refutes the last. The first is founded in reason, and corresponds with the common fense of mankind. They know that their opinion ought never to fall short of, or go beyond, the evidence upon which it is founded; and that they neither can nor ought to believe and difbelieve at the same time, that a man is a faint in heart. In a word, the Doctor's representation of the judgment of charity, as being different from a man's cool, candid, impartial, private opinion, is contrary to his own strong reasonings, the common sense of mankind, and the authority, which he has cited to support it.

Now, if the Doctor's notion of the judgment of charity be false, then all his reasonings, built upon it, are inconclusive. So that there is no occasion of following him any further in this chapter. The doctrine, which we endeavored to support in the Differtation, will bear its own weight, so long as the judgment of charity, upon which it rests, remains firm and immoveable. For, if the church must have a prevailing opinion in savor of the piety of every one, whom they admit to communion, then they may not admit any who appear to them desti-

gute of this scriptural qualification.

CHAPTER VI.

The Doctor's Remarks on " the duty of access to the Lord's table," considered.

by four distinct arguments, that none but real faints ought to come to the Lord's supper. In reply, the Doctor says, "doubting sinners ought to come." But this principle, on which he builds all his remarks on this head, we have already considered, and, perhaps, sufficiently refuted.



CHAPTER VII.

General observations on the Doctor's scheme.

AVING attended to the Doctor's Remarks on the Differtation, I might now confider his Remarks on the Strictures. But his observations on these are so destitute of that meekness of wisdom, which so visibly appears in his person, and in some of his most ingenious productions, that, for his sake, and the sake of religion, I shall pass them in deserved silence; and only make a few general observations on his reconciling scheme.



SECT. I.

The obscurity of the Doctor's scheme illustrated.

HIS scheme is built upon obscure principles, which spread obscurity through the whole. He sounds the right of admission, on a supposed distinction between a public and private judgment of charity. This distinction is so obscure, that he is unable, with all his metaphysical acumen, to set it in a plain and consistent light. He says, the church may, in a public judgment of charity, repute, receive, and regard a man as a saint in heart, who, at the same time, they neither think nor believe, in their private opinion, is a subject of grace. Their public and private judgment of charity may be totally diverse. Is this conceivable? Let a man only try to form a clear idea of such a distinction, and

he will find that it cannot be diffinally perceived. This difficulty the Doctor labored under, both in his Discourse and in his Remarks; and, therefore, it is not strange, that he involved both himself and his readers in great obscurity, with respect to the

right of admission.

No particular church can reduce his opinion to practice, in their admission of members. If he had told them, that they must admit all visible saints, and had described such persons intelligibly, they might have followed his direction. But, instead of this, he has told them, that they must admit all such, as, in their judgment of charity, they repute and believe to be faints in heart; though they have no reason to think, in their more private and more impartial opinion, that they have the least degree of grace. This must throw them into great embarraffment. For, they cannot repute and believe those to be saints in heart, in their public judgment, who, in their private opinion, they view as enemies to all righteousness. They will find it impossible, therefore, to reduce the Doctor's opinion to practice, in the admission of members; but must either adopt Mr. Stoddard's or Mr. Edwards's theory, and act upon it.

His notion of access is no less obscure and impracticable. For, he founds a person's right of access, not on his having grace, nor on his thinking he has grace; but on his being conscious of believing the gospel, and consenting to its gracious cov-

enant.

Here is a person, we will suppose, who wishes to act upon the Doctor's scheme, in coming to the facrament. The Doctor tells him, he must not come, if he knows he is destitute of grace. Again he tells him, he must not come, merely because he thinks he has grace. But he tells him, he may and ought to come, if he is conscious of believing the gospel,

gospel, and consenting to the new covenant, though he has ever fo many doubts and fears with respect to a state of grace. The person makes a pause, and reasons upon the matter. "How is all this? I may not come, if I know I am graceless. This is plain, whether it be true or not. I may not come merely because I think I have grace. This is also plain, whether it be true or not. But, I may and must come, if I am confcious of believing the gospel, and confenting to the covenant of grace, though I fear my heart is not right with God, and though I am really his enemy. This is dark. I know not what to do. It is true, I am confcious of believing the gospel and consenting to its gracious covenant. But, I know there is an essential difference between true and false love; or between loving God and divine things, for their own intrinsic excellence, and loving them from felfish and mercenary motives. And I must either determine whether my believing the gospel and consenting to the covenant of grace, arises from true love to God, or else leave this great point undetermined. The Doctor fays, I may leave this wholly undetermined. But does the Scripture fav the same? I no where find the scripture allows me to have felfish affections towards God and Jefus Christ. Nay, I find, on the contrary, that those who felt and expressed high affections to God and Jesus Christ, from mere mercenary motives, finally proved to be the enemies of God and crucifiers of Christ. I must determine, therefore, whether my religious affections are true or falle. But, if I must determine this important and difficult point, I am still left in darkness and perplexity, and can find no light nor relief from the Doctor's scheme. It takes me off from Mr. Stoddard's scheme, indeed, which allows those who know themselves to be graceless to come to the sacrament; and throws me into Mr. Edwards's scheme, which requires me

to have true love to God, and to have a prevailing belief that I have it, before I may come." A scheme, which involves those, who wish to embrace it, and reduce it to practice, in so much darkness and perplexity, must be extremely obscure. And this obscurity is no small evidence of its absurdity and salsehood.

SECT. II.

The Doctor's scheme shown to be deficient in proof.

THIS defect in the Doctor's Discourse, we mentioned in the Differtation. But, instead of supplying it, in his Remarks, he has offered only this feeble and unavailable apology. " As the Difcourfe " on the Church is grounded mainly on principles " in which christians are very generally agreed, it " was thought it would be a faving of needless " trouble and expense, not to infift much on the " proof of granted points." This is a good concelfion, but a poor apology; because the case was very different from what the Doctor here represents. Though some points, respecting the sacramental controverly, are confessedly taken for granted on all fides; yet, the two fundamental principles of the Doctor's scheme never were, so far as our knowledge extends, either taken for granted or. proved. A disputant ought to be layish of his trouble and expense, in establishing his fundamental principles; otherwife, he is in danger of faring like the fluggard, who neglects to plough by reason of the cold, which reduces him to the trouble of begging in harvest, and to the mortification of denial at first, and famine at last. The Doctor's two leading principles, which distinguish and lie at the bottom of

his peculiar, reconciling scheme, are these: That a public judgment of charity may be sounded on weaker and lower evidence, than a private judgment of charity; and that doubting sinners, in distinction from other graceless persons, ought to pro-

fess religion.

These two points are not taken for granted, nor proved, by Mr. Stoddard, as the Doctor might have known, if he had read him on the sacramental controversy. Mr. Stoddard maintains, that the sacrament is a converting ordinance, and that those, who know themselves to be graceless, ought to attend it. And in respect to admission, he maintains, that none ought to be received to communion but those, who make a public profession of their saith and repentance, to the just satisfaction of the church. This conveys no idea of a distinction between a public

and private judgment of charity.

Mr. Edwards agrees with the Puritans in England, and the first ministers and churches of New-England, in denying both the fundamental principles of the Doctor's scheme. He, as we have shown from his own statement of the grand point in dispute, defines a judgment of charity to be a fair, candid, christian belief, founded on positive evidence, that a person is a saint in heart. And he uniformly pleads, through his Humble Inquiry, that the Church must build their public charity upon fuch evidence as convinces them, that the proponent is probably, or more likely than not, a fubject of faving grace. Indeed, one of his arguments in favor of making the visibility of grace the term of admission, is drawn from that christian brotherly love, which is represented in scripture, as the peculiar bond of union among the members of a chriftian church, and which arifes from their viewing each other, in their private opinion, as cordially united to Christ. And as to the right of access, he infilts infifts that none ought to come to the table of the Lord, but those who are true believers, and have such evidence of being in a state of grace, as is a good reason, in the view of their own rightly informed conscience, for their naming the name of Christ, and attending the memorials of his death. And in this, he also agrees with the Puritans in England, and the Compilers of our Platform and Confession of Faith.

Where, then, did the Doctor find the two fundamental principles of his peculiar scheme, either taken for granted, or proved? Certainly not in Europe nor America. It was, therefore, fairly incumbent on him to establish the soundation of his superstructure. He ought to have produced some solid arguments, to prove two such important points, which had never been admitted, nor proved before. But these two essential points, on which his whole scheme depends, he has lest without support, both in his Discourse, and in his Remarks. And this gives us leave to say, that both his productions are essentially deficient, in respect to proof. But is this veniable in a polemic writer? Or can it pass for a mere infirmity?

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SECT. III.

Some of the inconfishencies in the Doctor's scheme pointed out.

IT is an old observation, that error is sated to run crooked. The most ingenious writer cannot reconcile truth and error; and, therefore, if he attempts to defend error, it will unavoidably lead him into inconsistencies. To this cause, rather than any other, we are ready to impute the great inconsistencies,

fistencies, which appear in the Doctor's Discourse and Remarks. But, fince antagonists are extremely apt to charge one another with this fault, we will treat the matter fairly, and lay before the reader the very passages, which appear to be irreconcilable, by any just and natural construction, that he may be able to judge for himself, whether the complaint of inconsistency has been well or ill founded.

1. There appears to be an inconfishency in the different representations, which the Doctor has giv-

en of covenanting.

He says, page 11th of the Remarks, "The rea"fon why adult persons are not ordinarily taken
"into God's covenant without their personal consent
"is, because this is the will and pleasure of God,
"not because he has not power and right to take
"whom he will into covenant, without their person-

66 al confent, whenever he pleases."

But, in his Discourse, he says, page 11th, 12th, "The call of the gospel requires all who are fa-" vored with it to give a ferious attention to its or proposal—and cordially confent to the gracious covenant which it reveals and offers to the chil-" dren of men. When they have thus (by cordial " confent) taken the bond of the covenant on them, sthere are further duties immediately enjoined; "duties which belong not to those who are not in " covenant while fuch. The gospel contains pre-" cepts which are immediately directed to, and 66 binding upon the consciences of those who are " not in covenant, even all to whom the word of " faith is fent. But it has also precepts which pre-" scribe special duties to those who are in covenant, who are under special obligation to perform these " and all other covenant duties. And this special " obligation arifing from their special relation and " engagements to God, is, I conceive, what is to be " understood by the bond of the covenant."

Now, if the bond of the covenant ariles from men's cordial confent to it, then they cannot be laid under the bond of it, without their cordial confent. To fay, therefore, as the Doctor does, that God can lay men under the bond of the covenant, which arifes from their cordial confent, without their cordial confent, will probably appear to the judicious and impartial, to be a plain and palpable contradiction.

2. The Doctor both afferts and denies, that the church must admit none to communion, but such as they think, it is probable, are saints in heart.

In page 42d, of the Discourse, he says, " There may be evidence sufficient to make it visible to " the eye or judgment of rational charity, that a per-" fon is a faint in heart, though it be not fufficient 66 to make it certain that he is really fuch an one. "And it is the visibility of inward fanctification to " the eye of charity, by the light of probable, though " uncertain evidence, which gives one the denom-" ination of a visible faint: So that the holiness sub-" posed is holiness of heart. But its being visible "does not mean that it can certainly be feen or "known to be real, but only that it is probable or " credible, which in the account of charity is fatis-" factory evidence of its truth or reality." " there may be visible and sufficient evidence of "the PROBABILITY, or credibility of a man's be-"ing a faint in heart, and that in the eye or judg-"ment of charity, he is to be reputed, and received "as if he were fuch. And we may fay that he is " vifibly fuch a one to the eye of charity." " I think," fays he, page 48th, " none ought to be accounted " visible saints in whom there are not visibly prebe penderant grounds of hope."

But, notwithstanding these declarations in savor of the church's having prebable evidence of the gracious fincerity of all whom they admit to commuhion; yet he fays, page 46th of the Discourse, "If we cannot know whether one is a visible faint, till we know whether there be a PREPONDERANT PROBABILITY that he is fincere, I think we shall never be able to determine this till the day of

" judgment."

These different representations the Doctor forefaw would appear to fome either paradoxical or inconfistent; for he immediately subjoins to the last quoted passage his apprehension, that " this will 66 found like a paradox to fome." And in page 49th he expresses the same apprehension of being thought to be inconfistent in his use of the term probable. " If it be thought improper to term that evidence " probable, which may yet be supposed to fail in 66 most instances; I am not concerned to defend 66 the propriety of using the phrase in this manner; " a phrase not found in the scriptures in any sense, " but coined in the schools." The Doctor's apprehensions were not groundless, for he has been supposed to be paradoxical and inconsistent; which has given him a fair opportunity of attempting to explain himself, and reconcile his supposed inconfiftency. His attempt follows. "I grant, howev-" er, that a church judging merely from what ap-" pears in a professor, may have more evidence of " his fincerity, than figns of hypocrify. And if s what Mr. E. has quoted to this purpose, comes " fully up to his fentiment, as he fays; I think it 66 may eafily be made to appear, that it is not incon-" fiftent with what was quoted by him a little be-" fore, " that we shall never be able to determine, "till the day of judgment, whether there be a pre-66 ponderating probability in favor of a professor." "For though the evidences of grace, which appear " in him, are supposed to outweigh the evidences " of a graceless state, which may appear in him, and " consequently judging merely from what appears

in him, it is most probable that he is fincere; yet "there is other evidence in the case, besides what " appears in him; evidence which the judgment of charity makes no account of, as not being ad-" miffible by the rule of the gospel in foro ecclesia. "And that is, the testimony of the scriptures, that 66 many visible faints, who give clear and striking " evidence of real piety, many whose life, and creed, and profession are good, so far as the church can "difcern, many whom they are evidently bound " to receive as true faints, are yet graceless, com-66 pared to foolish virgins, who have taken their 66 lamps without oil in their vessels. And we know " not how many will be found to have been of this " character; and so cannot determine whether this " might not turn the scale of probability against a " profesfor, notwithstanding the hopeful signs which " appear in him; if we could estimate the weight " of it, and were to take it into our account.

"In this manner I had carefully explained my meaning; and now I freely leave it to the intelligent reader to judge, whether what Mr. E. calls my concession and affertion, do not harmonize.
And whether his taking no notice of the explanation which was given, is asting the part of a fair

66 and manly disputant, or a caviller."

It is the part of a fair disputant, to detect fallacy, and lay open the truth. So far as the Doctor's explanation discovers his meaning, just so far it discovers his inconsistency. He says he means to hold, that we ought to take in more evidence in forming a private judgment of charity, than a public one. In a public judgment of charity, he says, we ought to take in only the evidence which appears in the proponent himself; but in a private judgment of charity, he says, we ought to take in of other evidence," that is, "the testimony of the foriptures, that many visible saints are infincere."

But

But, if this other evidence, as the Doctor calls it, can be taken into the private judgment, it cannot be excluded from the public. For, what the scripture fays concerning false professors is known and believed as much, when we form a public, as when we form a private judgment of charity. And we are no more forbidden to take what the scripture says on this point, into our account, when we form a public than when we form a private judgment, of a person's piety. The truth is, we cannot take this other evidence into our account in either case; because, what the scripture says leaves the matter altogether uncertain. But, even supposing it did ascertain the exact proportion between true and false professors, yet the Doctor allows, this ought to have no influence in forming a judgment of charity. "However," fays he, in the 48th page of his Difcourse, "there is no inconfistency in supposing that " there may be greater evidences of fincerity than " of hypocrify in each visible faint, though it were " at the same time supposed that the greater part " were hypocrites. For the evidence we may have of the hypocrify of others, how many soever, ap-" pears not in those of whom we judge charitably." The Doctor here declares, that what he calls " the other evidence," cannot be taken into our account, when we form a charitable judgment of a person's piety, because it does not appear in him.

But yet, he fays, a public judgment of charity may be formed in direct contrariety to a private judgment of charity. And he strenuously maintains, that the church must, in their public judgment of charity, really think it is provable that each person, whom they admit to communion, is a saint in heart; when, at the same time, in their private opinion, they not only may, but must think, all things considered, that it is not probable each person, whom they admit to communion, is a subject of

faving

faving grace. This appears to us an absolute inconsistency. And it appeared so to Mr. Edwards. Speaking upon this very point, he says, "Surely nothing but appearing reason is the ground of a rational judgment. And indeed it is impossible, in the nature of things, to form a judgment, which at the very time we think to be not only without, but against probability."

3. The Doctor afferts and denies, that those, who come to communion, must have probable evidence

of their own piety, or gracious fincerity.

In the 79th page of his Discourse, he says, "If, after careful examination of myself by the word of God, I find hopeful marks of sincerity, not invalidated by evidence of hypocrify, I find more reason in myself for comfortable hope, than self-condemnation. This I call credible evidence of fantification in the view and the account of conscience. And this I think all who come into church commu-

65 nion ought to have."

But, in the 77th page of his Discourse, he says, "I would not be understood to affert, that it is necessary for a man to be affured, or considently or prevailingly persuaded of his being inwardly fanctified." And he observes again in the 79th page, "A profession of christianity is credible evidence to the church that the professor is a christian, though it is not known whether the greatest part of professors be such. And if I am not conscious of hypocrify, this is a credible evidence in my own conscience that I am sincere. But as I know not whether the greatest part are sincere christians, who are unconscious of hypocrify, how can I know whether this amounts to a preponder- ant probability?"

But, what influence can this uncertainty have upon any man's opinion of himself? If he finds marks of grace in his own mind, which amount to

probable

probable evidence in his favor; how can his uncertainty about the exact number of felf-deceivers, either weaken or strengthen this probable evidence? It ought to have no concern in his forming his opinion of himself. But, if it does have any concern in this matter, it must either increase the probability in his favor, arising from the signs of grace, which he perceives in his own mind; or else, on the contrary, wholly destroy that probability. So that it falls nothing short of a plain inconsistency, to maintain, that a man ought to think it is probable, and at the same time, ought to think it is not probable, that he is a subject of special grace, in order to come to church communion.

4. The Doctor affirms and denies, that none ought to come to the facrament, but those who have a good reason for doing so, in the view of

a rightly informed conscience.

In page 74th of his Discourse, he tells us, " No 66 man can act morally without some reason. Noth-"ing can be reasonable to any one till he has a "view or apprehension of it: Nor has he a right "to act upon any reason or motive unless it ape pears to him good and fufficient, and be rightly " judged to be so. If we judge the reasons prompt-"ing us to do an action, to be sufficient when they " are not, our unreasonable judgment gives us no " reason to act according to it. It is an unfaithful si guide, and ought to be corrected. It must be the dictate of a right conscience, discerning and " approving the reasons for doing any thing to give " us a right or warrant to do it." In the next page he adds, "This then we lay down as a principle, 66 or maxim. No one has a right or warrant to " come into the church, who has not sufficient rea-" fon for doing fo, in the view of his own mind; 66 and whoever has fuch a reason has undoubtedly "a warrant to come, whatever doubts he may have " respecting

" respecting his spiritual state, and whatever his state may be supposed to be. A good reason in

"view, is a good foundation, and the only founda-

st tion for the dictate of a right conscience to do

" any thing."

But, he fays, page 85th of his Discourse, "Con-66 fcious veracity or moral fincerity in affenting and se confenting to the christian religion, makes a man " a visible faint in the view of conscience, and gives " him a warrant or right of access. It may be said, "that if one judges his spiritual state to be better "than it is, he deceives himself; which he has no " right to do; and his error gives him no right to " privileges. I answer, If he proceeds according to the rule and evidence by which he ought to " judge in the case, he has judged rightly and regse ularly, whether he has judged truly or not. Nor " is it contrary to truth for one to judge that he 66 has those marks of fanctification of which he is conscious, though he cannot conclude positively, 66 from uncertain credibility, or probability what his " state is." And in the 91st page, he asks, " May " not an unconverted man be a visible faint in the " just account of his own conscience, as well as of "the church? And is he not so, if he finds in him-" felf hopeful evidences of being a true christian, " the holding forth of which entitles him to admif-" fion to external communion?"

Since nothing but grace can give any person real evidence of being in a gracious state, it necessarily follows, that no unconverted person can have real evidence, in the view of his own rightly informed conscience, that he is converted. Besides, a rightly informed conscience will discover to any self-deceiver, that he is in the gall of bitterness and bonds of iniquity. It discovered this to Paul, and it has discovered this to multitudes of self-deceivers fince. It is wholly owing, therefore, to a person's conscience

conscience being wrongly informed, that he ever thinks he has grace, while he is destitute of true holiness. So that no unconverted man can be a visible saint in the just account of his own rightly informed conscience. Where then can be the consistency of maintaining, that none ought to come to the sacrament but such as have good reason for doing so, in the view of a rightly informed conscience; and yet maintaining, that some unconverted persons

ought to come?

If the Doctor had employed his celebrated pen in a confisent cause, we have no doubt but he would have written with his usual strength, perspicuity, and confistency. And, therefore, we are obliged to confider the weakness, obscurity, and inconfistency, which we have pointed out, as so many marks of the radical absurdity of his reconciling system. And if it cannot be supported by his hand, it must necessarily fall, for no other can give it a stronger support. But our cause, we trust, can be ably supported by others, though it may now suffer, by the weak and unskilful hand of its young and adventurous advocate.

I beg leave to express my own views of the management and issue of the present controversy,

in the words of an able polemic writer.

I do not, as many persons would, except against all answers that may be written in a manner not perfectly consistent with the laws of decorum, or those in which I may think myself treated with too much asperity, or ridicule. There are sew controversial writers, who, when the warmth of debate is over, may not see something of this kind to blame themselves for; but those who are acquainted with human nature, will make allowances for such human impersections, and attend to the merits of the case; and it may be depended upon, that the real weight of argument is the thing that will decide in the end,

when every thing of a personal nature, in the course

of the controversy, will be forgotten.

If I were disposed, as I am not, to plead for mercy, I would allege the extreme unpopularity of my side of the question; and that, a man who writes with the full tide of popular opinion in his favor, has no occasion for any indirect method of bearing down his antagonist. It is the man whose opinions are unpopular that stands in the most need of the arts of address, and in him they would be most excusable. But, notwithstanding this, I shall trust my very unpopular argument to its native strength or weakness, without any artificial support whatever.

THE END:













